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# A study of leadership style and effectiveness in educational broadcasting.

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A STUDY OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND EFFECTIVENESS  
IN EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

by

Godwin Gbolade Oyewole

Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty in  
partial fulfillment of the requirements for  
the degree of  
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Department of Education  
University of Massachusetts  
Amherst, Massachusetts  
November 1972

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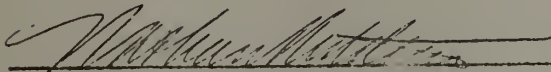
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A Dissertation

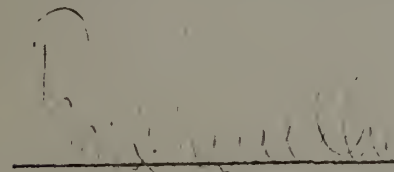
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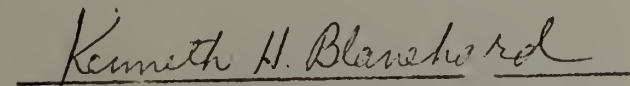
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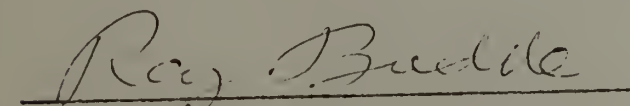
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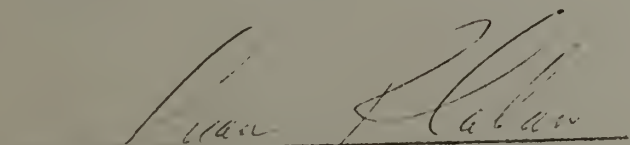
(Head of Department) Dwight W. Allen



(Member) Kenneth H. Blanchard



(Member) Ray Budde



(Member) Juan P. Caban

To my parents, who said I should.

To my wife, Saundra, who assured me that I could.

And to Charles F. Keenan, who said he knew I could,  
and that I should.

## A C K N O W L E D G E M E N T S

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

During the past fifty years or so, educational broadcasting (public broadcasting, non-commercial broadcasting, call it what you may) has advanced from being a one-room radio laboratory and hangout for various students and has now become a beneficiary of the marvels of color television, remote recording and sophisticated transmission facilities. Formal courses are now being presented on public broadcasting facilities at various levels of education.

An ever-increasing amount of tax money is being allocated for operating public broadcasting stations, and recently both public radio and public television have developed their own networking arrangements, while the number of stations is steadily increasing.

#### Statement of the Problem

Educational broadcasting is going to be important in the lives of many people in the years ahead. Not only in terms of tax money that will be allocated to support educational broadcasting, but also in the increase in the use of the electronic medium in both formal and informal education. Immediately, one thinks of the television programs Sesame Street and The Electric Company. But in addition to these, those who operate educational broadcasting have initiated

the Adult Learning Program Service (ALPS) and other learning projects which will involve both radio and television.

"This instrument," Edward R. Murrow once said of television, "can teach; it can illuminate. Yes, it can even inspire. But it can only do so to the extent that humans are determined to use it to those ends. Otherwise, it is merely lights and wires in a box." Thus, it is the responsibility of those who manage educational broadcasting facilities to be "determined to use it to those ends."

In reference to those who manage educational television, Hill (38:351) contends that such managers should have the qualities of renaissance men and that "The training of this new renaissance man, increasingly in demand as new ETV stations are activated is of paramount concern." Loper also recognizes the acute demands upon station managers, and he emphasizes that "The management of an ETV station, especially the community station, is perhaps the most difficult job in ETV today" (38:293).

Currently, there are many studies available in the general area of educational broadcasting, but very few of these are in the area of leadership and management.

In one of the few published materials on the type of person needed to manage educational television stations, Hill says that "he should be the electronic equivalent of a college president, a fund-raiser, a community development

expert, knowledgeable in business management and broadcast law and regulation" (38:351).

However, to date, no academic program exists specifically to train people for management in educational broadcasting.

### Purpose of the Study

According to Quaal and Martin (47:21)

The increasing complexity of the managerial assignment and the probability of significant developments in the future call for a definition of the basic involvements as well as challenges which confront the manager in broadcasting. First, principles can have immeasurable value when used as a yardstick by which the manager can measure his own accomplishments (or lack of them) against others who are engaged in a similar activity.

But inasmuch as there are no specific academic programs designed to prepare practitioners for management responsibilities in educational broadcasting, and there are not many research studies being done in this important area to identify these "basic involvements and challenges," the investigator feels that before we entrust the education of so many people and tax money into the hands of those who operate educational broadcasting, we should know what type of administrators they are.

Therefore, the purpose of the study is as follows:

- (a) To study leadership styles in educational broadcasting as perceived by the leaders



and their behavior as perceived by those who report to them.

- (b) To examine the differences and the similarities in leadership styles at different types of educational broadcasting stations.
- (c) To see if different leadership styles tend to be effective at different types of educational broadcasting stations.

The study will hopefully serve as a basis for determining how managers of educational broadcasting facilities may maximize their administrative effectiveness within the limitations of their resources.

### Questions

Therefore, in considering the continuing dynamic growth of educational broadcasting, the constant admonitions for programming excellence, and the need for managers to be aware of their social responsibilities, one could very well ask the following questions:

- (a) What are the administrative responsibilities, leadership behavior and styles inherent in the management of educational broadcasting? Leadership style, in this sense, is defined as how a manager perceives the way he carries out his management functions; and behavior is defined as how those who report to the manager perceive



how the manager carries out these functions.

- (b) Are there certain leadership styles and behavior that tend to be present in certain stations?
- (c) Are there certain leadership styles and behavior that tend to be effective in the management of educational broadcasting stations?

### Hypotheses

The following hypotheses will be investigated in the study:

1. For Consideration, self-description scores of managers of educational broadcasting stations will not differ from scores ascribed to these managers for this dimension by those who report to them.
2. For Initiating Structure, self-description scores of managers of educational broadcasting stations will not differ from scores ascribed to these managers for this dimension by those who report to them.
3. There will be no difference between the Leadership Quadrants in which the managers of educational radio stations not affiliated with ETV stations will place themselves and the Leadership Quadrants in which the managers of

educational radio stations affiliated with ETV stations will place themselves.

4. There will be no relationship between the profile of perceived importance of organizational goals by managers of educational broadcasting stations and perceived importance of organizational goals by "a panel of experts."
5. There will be no relationship between (a) the correlation of managers' perception of importance of organizational goals with the perception of these goals by "a panel of experts," and (b) the discrepancy between the way the managers perceive themselves and the way these managers are perceived by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ.
6. There will be no relationship between (a) the Quadrants in which managers will place themselves and (b) the discrepancies between the way they perceive themselves and the way they are perceived by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ.
7. There will be no relationship between (a) the discrepancy between the way managers perceive themselves and the way they are perceived by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ

and (b) the Quadrants in which managers are placed by those who report to them.

8. There will be no relationship between (a) the Quadrants in which managers place themselves on the two dimensions of the LBDQ and (b) the correlation of the perception of organizational goals by managers with the perception of these goals by "a panel of experts."
9. There will be no relationship between (a) the Quadrants in which managers are placed by those who report to them and (b) the correlation of the perception of organizational goals by managers with the perception of these goals by "a panel of experts."

### Assumptions

Assumptions fundamental to the design of the study are:

1. Administrators of educational broadcasting are determined to make the most effective use possible of the resources available to them to achieve their organizational goals.
2. These administrators are willing to reconcile any differences in how those who report to them perceive their leadership styles and how they themselves perceive the styles.

3. These administrators will be willing to describe their leadership styles to an outsider and also allow the outsider to interview their employees "on company time."
4. A valid inference can be made from this study about leadership style, behavior, and effectiveness at the educational broadcasting stations involved in this study.
5. The findings of this study can be used as a basis for a much broader study of leadership style and behavior and effectiveness in educational broadcasting.

#### Limitations of the Study

1. The wide geographical distribution of educational broadcasting facilities throughout the United States limited the data-gathering process for this exploratory study to only the few stations the investigator could visit.
2. The limitations of distance, time and funds made it necessary to restrict the number of stations in this study to a total of 12.
3. The internal processes, procedures, and operations of the stations surveyed are not included in this study.

4. The interviews were conducted exclusively with the administrative staff, who are responsible for the day-to-day operations of each station, and not with the general staff, or the members of the board who are usually not involved in the actual operations of the station.
5. The questionnaire method has its own "built-in" limitations. For example, the responses obtained were made to pre-arranged questions and this prevents rephrasing of questions for "clarity."
6. The data presented here should not be taken as the leadership style, behavior and effectiveness in educational broadcasting in the United States, but rather as descriptions of the way they were at the stations included in this study.

#### Definition of Terms

Operational terms used in this study are defined as follows:

LEADERSHIP STYLE - the way a manager sees himself in fulfilling his leadership role at the station. The style consists of initiating structure and consideration.

LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR - the way a manager's mode of operation is perceived by those who report to

him when he fulfills his leadership role. This also consists of initiating structure and consideration.

INITIATING STRUCTURE - the extent to which the leader delineates the "relationship between himself and members of the work group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure" (Halpin, 18:4).

CONSIDERATION - the extent to which the leader's mode of operation is "indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff" (Halpin, 18:4).

LBDQ - the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire developed by the Personnel Research Board of the Ohio State University.

LEADERSHIP - working with, and through, individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals; a relationship between persons rather than a characteristic of an isolated individual.

STATION - a public, educational, radio or television station operated on a non-commercial basis, located in the Eastern part of the United States.



## C H A P T E R    I I

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature as reviewed in this chapter falls into four areas:

1. The History and the Nature of Educational Broadcasting
2. Principles and Theories of Management and Leadership
3. Methods in the Study of Administrative Leadership
4. The Development of the LBDQ.

#### The History and the Nature of Educational Broadcasting What is Educational Broadcasting?

Generally speaking, educational broadcasting refers to the programming of a non-commercial radio or television station licensed by the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) to any one of the following:

1. Board of education; public school districts; and school systems
2. Institutions of higher education
3. Community representatives--that is, a group of interested and dedicated citizens who represent the community's groups and educational establishment.

4. A state commission or authority.

Broadcasting facilities operated by any of these licensees have often been referred to, at one time or the other, as "non-commercial," "instructional," "public," or "educational." An obstacle in the path of description is, therefore, that of terminology. However, for the purpose of this paper, the candidate will use the term "educational" to describe the type of broadcasting under discussion.

In general, educational broadcasting stations have the following characteristics in common:

1. Their programs are devoted wholly to educational (not exclusively instructional) purposes;
2. They do not sell their programs on the open market;
3. They are not permitted to accept on-the-air advertising or operate commercially;
4. They can afford to program for minority audiences, and they do not have to play the numbers game of commercial broadcasters.

For the most part, educational broadcasting began as a kind of a one-room radio laboratory and hangout for students in various departments such as speech, education, and engineering. It later grew to be a charity to which wealthy, warm-hearted citizens could donate some money and take a tax deduction. Being a charity, educational broadcasting was



STAFF - an employee who reports directly to the Manager.

MANAGER - the chief administrator of a radio or television station who may be titled Station Manager, General Manager, Head of Radio, etc.

### Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter I is an Introduction to the Study:

Statement of the Problem

Purpose of the Study

Questions, Hypotheses and Assumptions

Limitations of the Study

Definition of Terms

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter II will consist of Review of Related Literature:

The History and the Nature of Educational Broadcasting

Principles and Theories of Management and Leadership

Methods in the Study of Administrative Leadership

The Development of the LBDQ

Chapter III will be on the Procedure:

The Research Instruments

The LBDQ

The Organizational Goals Questionnaire

Procedure for Collecting and Processing the Data

Chapter IV will be on The Findings:

Patterns of Leadership Behavior

Perceptions of Goals

Testing the Hypotheses

Chapter V will be a Discussion and Summary

Hypotheses

Life Cycle Theory

LBDQ

Organizational Goals

Implications for Station Management

Recommendations for Further Research

Summary

Sections on Bibliography and Appendix will conclude the dissertation.

expected to be harmless and non-controversial. Today, educational broadcasting has lost its charity status. Most of the stations are now successful medium-size business establishments.

For example, according to reports filed by 128 ETV license holders for fiscal year 1970, the position of ETV (8:5-8) is as appears on p. 16.

With such bigness came new buildings, new studios, fancy equipment, and such attendant problems as space allocation, the realities of politics, management, planning, administration, budgeting, economic analysis, programming decision, and funding.

#### Historical Background

Radio. The first educational broadcasting facility in the United States was radio station WHA, at the University of Wisconsin, which began a regular broadcast service in 1921 after some two years of operation on an experimental basis. From 1921 to 1925, 175 licenses were issued by the now defunct Federal Radio Commission to other educational radio stations. But by 1926 nearly half of them had ceased operations. The growing pains of educational broadcasting were enormous. During the fifteen-year period from 1921 to 1936, a total of 202 broadcast licenses were issued to educational institutions, and 164 of these were revoked or allowed to expire during this period, and only 38 licensed

Aggregate Income	\$ 99,956,372
Median	472,591
Mean	780,909
High	5,737,283
Low	28,635

Aggregate Direct Operating Costs	83,677,225
Median	393,494
Mean	653,728
High	5,518,660
Low	28,574

Aggregate Capital Expenditures	20,460,290
Median	29,817
Mean	159,846
High	2,313,638
Low (some license holders purchased no equipment)	0

Available figures for the 91 CPB-Qualified Public Radio  
Station Licensees during the same period are as follows  
(9:11-19):

Aggregate Income	\$ 9,377,433
Median	81,441
Mean	103,049
High	426,342
Low	5,601

Aggregate Direct Operating Costs	8,581,048
Median	74,838
Mean	94,297
High	418,342
Low	1,950

Aggregate Capital Expenditures	1,065,113
Median	2,900
Mean	11,705
High	145,685
Low (some license holders purchased no equipment)	0

educational radio stations remained on the air by January 1, 1937 (51:357).

It is a fact that there are some educational programs on commercial stations. For example, a national political convention could be an educational experience as well as an absorbing, sometimes entertaining, spectacle. Documentary programs, press conferences, occasional fine music or dramatic programs on commercial stations are also educational. Some commercial stations even broadcast programs of formal education. For example, Continental Classroom, Sunrise Semester, Sign on Seminar, and many more. But these educational programs form a very small part of commercial broadcasting, and they are usually buried in time slots when not too many people are listening or watching.

In 1925, at the Fourth Annual Radio Conference, those involved in educational broadcasting noted that they were receiving very little support and sympathy from the government, the press, the commercial broadcasters and educational administrators. They then formed a mutual protective association called the Association of College and University Broadcasting Stations which became the National Association of Educational Broadcasters (NAEB) in 1934.

The attitude toward educational broadcasting during this period was reflected in the words of Paul Segal of WOW in Omaha, Nebraska, and the magazine Radio Guide.

Paul Segal, opposing the application of WCAJ of Nebraska Wesleyan University, said: "Our contention is that as a matter of principle, educational programs should be given by stations having regular listening audiences--WOW desires to take the responsibility of rendering this service to the public" (51:357).

Radio Guide, commenting on the 1934 Communications Act which requested the newly created FCC to study the feasibility of setting aside specific frequencies for education, said in its editorial of September 15, 1934:

Americans do not want education thrust down their throats or into their ears. You can't force education down their throats or into their ears. You can't force education on a nation. There are types of educational programs to which the public does respond, and these programs are available today. The NBC devotes more than 20 percent of its time to highly educational features. CBS runs a little higher. (51:357)

Also, during this period, a suit was brought against the educational radio station of the University of Minnesota by a local commercial station before the bar of the then Federal Radio Commission. The educational station was accused of cluttering up the air with miscellaneous educational programs that appealed to a relatively small minority of the population, while the masses preferred the program put out by the commercial station. On that ground, the Commission was petitioned to revoke the license issued



to the University and allocate it to anyone else who could use it to produce revenue.

It is a tribute to the Commission that the request contained in the petition was denied.

In reply to repeated suggestions by the Congress to reserve channels on behalf of educational radio, from 1931--when Senator Simeon Fess of Ohio submitted a bill which proposed to reserve 15 percent of all channels for education--until 1938 when the first frequencies were finally set aside for education in what was later to be the FM band, the FCC and its predecessor, the FRC, and the industry provided little encouragement or help for educational broadcasters in the use of the electronic media. "Commerce," "free enterprise," "freedom from regulation," and "freedom from government activity in education" were frequently invoked, and very few people were inclined to challenge the popular belief that the use made of radio by commerce was the only thinkable use.

The first big break for educational broadcasting came in 1931 when the Payne Fund awarded a \$200,000 grant which led to the establishment of the National Committee on Education by Radio. In 1949 and 1950, the Rockefeller Foundation awarded some grants to the University of Illinois, through the efforts of Dr. Wilbur Schramm, to make possible the First and the Second Allerton Seminars on educational

radio. From these meetings of educational radio station managers and program planners emerged the basis of philosophical and program ideas of educational radio broadcasting.

In 1951, the W.K. Kellogg Foundation awarded a \$250,000 grant to the NAEB in order to set up a central office for the NAEB and the start of an educational broadcasting tape network. The Foundation supported these efforts, on a declining basis, for a total of eleven years, and the NAEB is now supported through funds from its members.

Also, in 1951, the Fund for Adult Education provided the first of several grants to the NAEB to develop programs for distribution by NAEB's tape network. But until the passage of the National Defense Education Act of 1958, no significant grants were made for radio after the 1951 grants by the Kellogg Foundation and the FAE.

With the advent of television, radio became less important in the lives of many people. Unfortunately, educational radio also went into a decline as more and more people started to use television for educational purposes. With television, it is possible to add visual images to the possibilities of sound broadcasting; and, compared with television, radio seems like child-play.

Between 1950 and 1960, educational television received the lion's share of the support given by the largest educational foundations and by the government to encourage the



development of new teaching techniques. "Teach by television" became the new educational battle-cry both by professional educators and public figures. In some cases, the decline in the use of radio for educational purposes was total, and many of the stations had to cease operations. In most cases, however, radio was merely reduced to the status of an orphan.

Television. The success and the growth of educational television (ETV) owe a great deal to the pioneers of educational radio. By the time educational television arrived on the scene, those who were interested in the use of the electronic media in the educational process had learned a lot from their experience with radio. They had learned the process of dealing not only with government agencies for funds and resource allocation, but also how to deal with those who were opposed to their ideas. They had formed national associations during the early days of radio to work for them, they had become comfortable with technology and had learned to avoid bickering about who should control the medium.

ETV was originally introduced as an "alternative" service for the dissemination of cultural, informational, and educational programming. The first experiments took place at the University of Iowa between 1932 and 1939. Over 400 programs appeared on Iowa's W9XK with such subjects as

engineering, botany, art, drama, and shorthand being presented (32:334).

In 1948, the FCC indirectly afforded educators an opportunity to bid for broadcast frequencies. When the Commission issued its "freeze" that year, it stipulated that no new television licenses would be issued until it had re-evaluated how television air waves were to be distributed. This provided time to alert educators and civic organizations to pressure the FCC to allocate channels for ETV.

In 1950 the United States Office of Education in collaboration with the National Association of Educational Broadcasters formed the Joint Committee of Educational Television (JCET). JCET was influential in convincing the FCC to reserve a number of television channels for the use of education exclusively, to be operated as non-profit, non-commercial undertakings.

When the FCC terminated its "freeze" in 1952, 242 channels in the television spectrum were reserved for non-commercial educational use. Eighty of these were on VHF channels and 162 on UHF channels. The numbers have since been increased. Although these allocations were made by the FCC alone, the decision was influenced by educational broadcasters and public figures from many parts of the country.

Within a year after the allocations were made, KUHT-TV, licensed to both the Houston Board of Education and the University of Houston, became the first ETV station on the air. It went on the air on May 12, 1953. Today there are more than 200 ETV stations in the country. Of these, about one-third are licensed to local or state educational systems, another third to community organizations.

It has been estimated that some fifteen million students receiving elementary, secondary, and higher education, in over 2,000 schools, are today obtaining either part or total instruction from television (14:1).

Prominent in the development of ETV was the Ford Foundation's Fund for Adult Education. The Fund provided much of the early financial support for ETV, and its staff spurred the activation of 30 ETV stations in different parts of the country. It was actually the interest of the Fund in "adult education" that helped establish the concept that ETV should be involved in total education and should not simply be an instructional aid for the classroom teacher.

The Foundation also formed the Fund for the Advancement of Education which supported experiments at the school and college level. These experiments involved the use of television in formal instruction, particularly where the attempt was to multiply the effectiveness of able teachers.

The federal government has also played an important

role in the history of ETV. Title VII of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 invested more than \$10 million in research related to the use of television in education and also established three experimental regional television program exchange libraries. One each in New York; Lincoln, Nebraska; and Boston, Massachusetts. Title III of the same Act has been used to provide reception systems for public schools. A little over 50% of a typical ETV station's revenue comes from public school sources through their use of instructional programming.

The ETV Facilities Act of 1962 (PL 87-44) which provides funds for the growth and improvement of existing ETV facilities is also an important benchmark in the history of ETV.

Also prominent in the development of ETV is the Carnegie Commission on Educational Television, sponsored and financed by the Carnegie Corporation of New York. It was on the basis of recommendation of this Commission that the Congress passed the Public Broadcasting Act of 1967. The Commission's recommendations touched all areas of ETV:

1. Extension and strengthening of ETV stations.
2. Establishment of a "Corporation for Public Television
3. Program production centers to be supported by the Corporation

4. Corporation to support "more-than-local" program productions.
5. Corporation to support local programming
6. Interconnection of ETV stations nationally
7. Corporation to support experimental productions
8. Corporation to support technical experiments
9. Corporation to be actively involved in recruiting and training
10. Excise tax to be passed on to the Corporation
11. HEW to support basic operations of ETV stations
12. Government to carry out research on Instructional Television.

Based on these recommendations, Congress enacted the Public Broadcasting Act of 1967--Public Law 90-129 on November 7, 1967--a very important legislation in the history of educational broadcasting.

Title I of this Act continued the Educational Broadcasting Facilities Program and authorized increased appropriations to stations on a 3:1 matching basis.

Title II authorized the establishment of the Corporation for Public Broadcasting (CPB) "to facilitate the development of educational radio and television broadcasting and to afford maximum protection to such broadcasting from extraneous interference and control."



Title III authorized the Secretary of HEW to conduct a comprehensive study of instructional radio and television.

Although the Carnegie Commission Report formed the major base on which the Public Broadcasting Act of 1967 was constructed, the Congress made major adjustments in writing the Act. For example:

1. The amount of \$9 million authorized in the Act for fiscal year 1968 fell far short of the recommendations of the Carnegie Commission
2. The Commission predicted all of its financial calculations on the premise that CPB would concern itself only with television. The Congress added radio to the responsibilities of CPB.
3. The Commission envisioned HEW as providing general financial support for stations, leaving CPB to concentrate on providing program production and distribution support. However, Congress rejected the idea of HEW providing such general support.
4. The Commission stated that federal funds must be the mainstay of the system and that CPB will not be viable without federal support of approximately the size recommended; it foresaw that CPB would need an average of \$56 million

annually over its first four years to achieve the objectives it outlined; it foresaw an additional \$30 million coming from HEW for station general support.

However, federal support for the first four years of CPB did not average \$86 million. The average is \$19.5 million.

5. The Commission recommended funding CPB through a manufacturer's excise tax on television sets which will provide at least \$40 million in 1968 rising to \$100 million in 1980. For fiscal year 1968, Congress provided only \$9 million for CPB.

#### The Nature of Educational Broadcasting

"Television is a multiple-medium device, combining radio, film strip, phonograph, museum, exhibit blackboard, field trip, demonstration, and the lecture. The classroom teacher can use television to see good teachers at work. Weak spots in the curriculum can be bolstered, and lesson loads can be eased by the introduction of well-prepared TV lesson plans" (38:352).

As mentioned above, ETV is a direct descendant of educational radio. In the early 1920's when radio first became a means of public communication, the notion of using the new technology for educational purposes occurred

to some people. Radio at that time was a fad, and educational radio shared the faddish characteristics.

By the time television became the new broadcasting medium, following World War II, the educational system had been bracketed between the "population explosion" and the "knowledge explosion" and it was becoming increasingly difficult for the system to meet its responsibilities by conventional means. It is not then surprising to find that some people felt that television, the newest wonder of science, would surely solve the educator's problems.

At that initial stage, a lot of people assumed that with television it would be easy to extend education economically, and spread scarce teaching talent thinner. They thought that the educational experiences provided by television would be more or less the conventional ones, and that the teaching talent would perform on television much as in the classroom. They were not aware of some of the limitations of television as a medium of instruction, such as:

1. The unidirectional flow of information from television
2. Redundancy--"a measure of the probability that a receiver of a message can anticipate the message or at least correctly fill in the gaps. . . Obviously, redundancy factors (repetition being



one of the most obvious) takes up space/time. . ."  
(38:24).

3. Anonymity--so many people are involved in preparing the many parts that compose the message delivered.
4. Screen size tends to lead to a reduction in scope.
5. Simultaneity of coverage tends to lead to simplicity and informality on the part of the viewer.
6. Television's rate is constant: there is no spontaneous speed-up for the highly alert student, no slow-down for the less alert.
7. It cannot very effectively conduct drill, by itself.
8. It doesn't stop to ask questions.

But television also has its strengths:

1. It is very good at bringing demonstrations to learners.
2. It lets a school or college share its best teachers, rather than rationing them.
3. It brings a sense of timeliness to the viewer.

But all these are technical advantages and limitations. Although they may be important, they should not be the decisive factors in considering television as a medium of instruction. As a matter of fact, in spite of the

limitations of the nature of television as a medium of instruction, it has been proved that when properly used, television has proved to be a very effective medium of instruction:

Sesame Street has shown parents and teachers that television is an exciting and effective teaching tool, capable of even reaching children who were stamped educationally unreachable by educational experts. (48:1-2)

As noted in Nat Rutstein's booklet, Educational Testing Service found in their study of the effectiveness of Sesame Street that:

First, children who watched the most learned the most. The amount of learning that took place. . . increased in relation to the amount of time the child watched the program. Second, the skills that received the most time and attention on the program itself were, with rare exceptions, the skills that were best learned. . . . Third, the program did not require formal adult supervision in order for children to learn in the areas the program covers. . . . The major finding--that children learned more the more they watched--holds true across age, sex, geographical location, socioeconomic status (SES), mental age (intelligence), and whether children watched at home or at school. (48:2)

The success of education by television is by no means restricted to Sesame Street. The results of efforts at Newark Central High School, Hawthorne Cedar Knolls School in New York, and Harlem Preparatory School all bear witness to the fact that television can, indeed, be more effective in education than face-to-face instruction.

Godwin Chu and Wilbur Schramm in their review of

research on learning with television have also been able to establish the following (7:1-21):

1. Given favorable conditions, children learn effectively from television just as they do from other experience that can be made to seem relevant to them.
2. By and large, television can more easily be used effectively for primary and secondary students than for college students; possibly because the higher the grade level, the more serious will be the lack of immediate feedback and discussion.
3. Television can be used effectively to teach any subject-matter where one-way communication will contribute to learning.
4. Television is more likely to be an effective part of an educational system when it is applied to an educational problem of sufficient magnitude to call forth broad support.
5. Television is more likely to be an effective tool of learning if it is planned and organized effectively.

The essence of education is learning. How valuable an instructional activity is should be judged by the learning it produces.

Learning is a unique experience, varying according to our individual backgrounds and capabilities, our environments, and our goals. While there is no single, universal, monolithic learning theory, there are some recognized characteristics which are usually present in any effective learning experience:

1. The learner must be the focal point in the educational process. The process should be judged effective or ineffective only in the light of the understanding, attitude, and belief acquired by the learner.
2. The learner should be treated as a rational participator, not as a passive receptor of impressions.
3. Learning can become satisfying and meaningful to the learner when there is interaction between the learner and the teacher.
4. The educational process must take account of the learner's individuality and guide the learner to:
  - a) accept objectives appropriate to himself and to society;
  - b) select from what is around him that which is relevant to the pursuit of his goals.
5. The learner should be stimulated and equipped to continue learning.

Thus, it is only in terms of its contribution to learning

that ETV--in spite of some of its limitations--should be considered.

Marshall McLuhan tells us that television creates a new environment, and, therefore, a new human being. Television is often classified as being in the third communications revolution. The first two are the development of speech and the invention of writing.

Television enables us to see and hear more vividly. Not only does it provide us with magnification, distribution, observation and motivation, it also provides us with the ability to record, preserve and re-use. This revolution has been a force in restructuring educational systems--the services of specialists can now be distributed to a greater number of learners, providing new insights and opening new worlds to the learner-viewer and strengthening the concepts of team-teaching. With the proper use of television, teachers are able to spend more time on individual work with students, providing freedom from non-productive activities and moving in the direction of more personalized and humanized teaching.

Because of its characteristics:

- a) Television can be used to transmit experiences often novel to the learner;
- b) Because of its immediacy and its personal quality, television can be valuable in providing concrete

experiences which will help mold or develop constructive attitudes;

- c) Television can serve as one means of helping to analyze component parts of a problem and understand the steps of problem solving;
- d) Through its ability to provide close-ups and to focus on step-by-step procedures, television may be used with success in demonstrations;
- e) Television can be used as a substitute for, or to supplement, a field trip, and as a means of bringing current events to the classroom.

There are people who believe that television instruction is a threat to the educational process, reducing the variety of the classroom to the flat surface of a tube. Some teachers are afraid of technological unemployment and some humanists seem to foresee automated education, mechanized teaching, and "robotized" students.

These fears seem to be unfounded. After all, television is just another communication medium but a very effective way of communicating. Since education is largely a matter of communication, television--like books, records, radio and the computer--could be used in instructing without destroying the learning process.

Here are some instances, outside the United States, where the nature and the characteristics of ETV have been effectively



utilized in the educational processes (7:73-83):

- a) The Republic of Niger had only about 10 percent of its children of school age in classes. The government wanted to bring about 300,000 children more into school, and to build up its secondary education. But in the country, there were only 66 teachers who themselves had secondary education. So, the government used some of its best teachers to give the core of instruction on television, using well-trained teachers to supervise the classroom learning activities built around the television, and extended the televised teaching one grade per year.
- b) American Samoa was trying to go from a traditional rote-learning type of educational system into a modern one. Almost all the members of its local teacher corps had come up through the traditional system and could not make such a dramatic change. Therefore, Samoa consolidated its one-room schools, installed a six-channel television system, and brought in expert studio teachers to give the core of the curriculum. At the same time, Samoan teachers were provided with in-service training and teaching materials to provide an adequate classroom context for the television and to



improve upon their own preparation until they could handle a different level of teaching.

- c) About half of Italy's 8,000 communes have no secondary schools. This is especially serious in remote areas which are too isolated to permit children to attend schools in neighboring communes. To serve such areas, the Centro di Tele-scuola began in 1958 to broadcast a full curriculum for the first three years of secondary school to learning groups organized in these remote areas and presided over by monitors or teachers who share the responsibility with the teachers in the studio.
- d) Algeria lost 80 percent of the French teachers, who had predominated in its teacher corps, when it became an independent nation. The government had promised the people universal education after independence. It went ahead, recruited 10,000 Algerians as monitors, and then seized upon every way it could find to provide in-service training for them. Among other things, it used television where it could, in combination with programmed instruction, correspondence study, and study groups.
- e) With the political situation in Israel, there is a shortage of teachers. Israelis put a very high

premium on education. So, the government purchased the best television equipment from Japan and recruited well qualified television teachers from the United States. Now, in schools in Israel, every fourth lesson a child receives is televised.

### Principles and Theories of Management and Leadership

A review of the literature indicated that very little work has been done on the study of leadership, management, and effectiveness in the field of Mass Communication, both educational and commercial. However, a review of literature on leadership studies in other organizations indicates that different opinions concerning the basic principles of management upon which various management procedures and theories have been developed. For example, Falcon (11:20) referred to planning as the most important approach to management. To him "planning" includes financial planning and control, organizational planning, long-range planning, and the planning of information systems. This is the loop approach.

Koontz and O'Donnell (40:387) advocated the functional approach. This approach brings all activities into organized departments and results in the delegation of authority and responsibility relationships within the organization - involvement through participation within specialized functions.

### Theories of Leadership

Four theories of leadership usually cited in literature are trait, continuum, two-dimensional and situational theories.

Trait theory. According to this theory, there are certain traits common to all successful and effective leaders, and potential leaders can be identified. However, Bird (3); Jenkins (33); Stogdill (53); and Gibb (15) argued that there are no traits common to all leadership situations.

Continuum theory. According to this theory, leaders could be placed at a point on a linear scale that ranges from autocratic to democratic. Basic to this theory is the belief that a leader is either authoritarian or democratic, but not both. Gibb (15); Jennings (34); and McGregor (43).

Two-dimensional theory. According to this theory, which was first advanced by researchers at the Ohio State University, there are two different dimensions of leadership: Initiating Structure and Consideration (Hemphill and Coons - 23; Halpin and Winer - 19). One of the instruments used in this study, the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire was developed to identify these two dimensions. The managerial grid of Blake and Mouton (4) in which a high score on Concern for Production coupled with a high on Concern for People is used to characterize "the best style" of leadership is an extension of the Two-dimensional Theory.

Situational theory. According to this theory, the way a leader behaves should depend on the situation of the environment in which he has to operate. Some of the factors of the environment are the leadership style and expectations of the leader himself, the expectations of his followers, the requirements of the task to be performed, the type of person to whom the leader reports, and the nature of the organization (12).

#### Classical Principles of Management

According to Douglas McGregor, the following principles of management have had a profound influence on managerial behavior for several generations (43:15):

- (1) The Scalar Principle--There must be clear lines of authority from top to bottom, in an organization.
- (2) The Unity of Command--Each member of an organization should have to report to only one boss.
- (3) The separation of line and staff--There should be a clear demarcation between line and staff, emphasizing the command authority of line and the advisory responsibility of staff.
- (4) Task specialization--Individuals should be encouraged to develop skill-competence through specialization; the grouping of similar specialists will facilitate the process of management.

- (5) The Span of Control--The number of people that should report to one individual should be kept to the nearest minimum, because there is a limit to the number of people one individual could supervise effectively.
- (6) The parity of authority and responsibility--Sufficient authority must be granted to allow individuals to adequately fulfill their responsibilities.

#### Universality of the Classical Principles of Management

"The literature gives the impression that these principles are beyond challenge" (43:15). Terry states that the principles of management are universal (57:74), and Koontz and O'Donnell feel that universal functions and principles apply to all types of organizations (39:13).

But all is not well with the classical principles of management. Some authors not only criticize the idea of universality, but also challenge the practicality of these principles in a "typical" business firm. Simon feels that some of the principles are incompatible with others (50:35).

Chris Argyris contends that the span of control, task specialization and the chain of command principles have such a stifling and inhibitive effect on people that they may be detrimental to the health of the organization (2:58-64).

Some management thinkers also feel that the control



principle could be detrimental to human morale in some organizations. Hampton, Summer, and Weber feel that control systems have a tendency to threaten initiative (21:195). McGregor feels that a control system allows the manager to control others by his supreme position of authority (43:18).

Some authors also argue that just because a principle works well in one organization is not sufficient proof to insist on its use in all organizations. For example, Kelly differentiates between mutual benefit organizations and service organizations. In mutual benefit organizations, the prime beneficiary is the member. In service organizations such as hospitals, schools and libraries, the client is the prime beneficiary. He made the point that it seems unlikely that these two types of organizations will have identical goals, systems of administration and common management principles (37:268-269).

There are too many exceptions to the universalist theory to insist that all managers in all organizations use the same set of principles all the time; but in spite of the fact that the classical principles of management have been challenged for their usefulness in different organizations, some of the principles are still to be reckoned with some of the time in some organizations.

### Management Functions

Management has been defined as working with and through individuals and groups to accomplish organizational goals (26:3).

What management does to reach the objectives of the organization is known as the functions of management.

Management functions are also supposed to be basically the same in every type of organization: "The management function is a necessary feature of all organized activity. Although the purpose of organizations differ, the nature of the management function remains constant," (1:51). "Because management functions are universal, they can be transferred from one organization to another" (29:158).

Unfortunately, management thinkers do not agree as to what comprises management functions. While planning and control are the only two functions listed by most authors, some of the other functions listed in addition to planning and controlling are staffing and directing; organizing and motivating (26:4); organizing, coordinating and motivating (1:24-25).

This apparent lack of agreement as to what constitute management functions may be attributed to two main reasons-- the different rationale for categorization used by the authors and the fact that the functions are interrelated: "Management functions have the quality of being interactive.



That is, they are contained within each other" (29:158).

### Planning

Planning involves selecting the organization's objectives plus the policies, programs, and procedures for achieving them in part or in whole. It brings together both internal and external factors such as funds, people, and equipment as they relate to the policies and procedures of the organization. According to Koontz and O'Donnell, planning serves a fourfold purpose (39:79):

1. To offset uncertainty
2. To focus attention on objectives
3. To further the economy of operation
4. To assure and facilitate control.

### Organizing

Organizing becomes meaningful only after plans have been made. According to Koontz and O'Donnell:

Organizing involves determination and enumeration of the activities required to achieve the objectives of the enterprise, the grouping of these activities, the assignment of such groups of activities to a manager, the delegation of authority to carry them out, and provisions for coordination of authority relationships horizontally and vertically in the organizational structure. Sometimes all these factors are included in the term "organization structure"; sometimes they are referred to as "managerial authority relationships." In any case, it is the totality of such activities and authority relationships that comprises the organization function. (39:40)

Essentially, organizing "involves bringing together resources--people, capital and equipment--in the most effective way to accomplish organizational goals. Organizing, therefore, involves an integration of resources." (26:4)

### Staffing

Staffing involves manning the organization. This includes recruiting, selecting and training of personnel for the positions provided within the organization. In principle, effective staffing has to do with placing people regardless of race, religion, sex or creed where they can work most effectively in terms of the objectives of the organization.

No system works effectively unless people work; people must be influenced, motivated, and given the opportunity to participate in achieving the goals of the organization for which they work, and effective staffing is vital to the achievement of the objectives of any organization. Unless management succeeds in this area, its other activities will suffer.

### Directing

Directing is a function that includes the guiding and the supervision of personnel within the organization. Koontz and O'Donnell defined its purpose as the integration of subordinates in the interest of total objectives of the enterprise (39:475).

According to Pfiffner and Fels, the effectiveness of the command concept of motivation assumes that followers are willing to respond (46:29).

In principle, directing is the managerial function of guiding, overseeing, and leading people. It is pre-eminently, therefore, that portion of the management function which involves personal relationships, even though. . . all aspects of managing must be designed to make it possible for people to work together effectively. But directing, as a function, goes peculiarly outside of the formal organization and the enterprise for its roots since people are necessarily a product and a part of a culture wider than any undertaking or its immediate industrial environment (40:321).

### Controlling

Controlling is the function of management which deals with the appraisal and the verification of results in relation to plans. In controlling, management measures performance, corrects deviations from plans, and assures the accomplishment of the plans.

According to Wadia, there is a working definition of control: "The essence of control is action which adjusts operations to pre-determined standards, and its basis is information in the hands of managers." (59:203).

In principle, controls should be efficient enough to detect deviations from plans with a minimum of disruptions to current operations and should incorporate enough flexibility to remain effective even when plans change, and the system of control should be reviewed periodically.

### Methods in the Study of Administrative Leadership

Stogdill and Shartle (54) described seven different methods usually employed in the study of leadership in military and business organizations. For each method, they gave the directions for its use and administration, and the data on its reliability and validity. The methods described are:

The Interview

Organizational Charts and Manuals

Sociometric Methods

The RAD Scales

Work Analysis Forms

Effectiveness Ratings

Leader Behavior Description

Hemphill (22) developed a questionnaire which he used to identify functions which are supposedly common to the role of a leader, regardless of the group situation. Each respondent described his group and also evaluated the behavior of the leader of the group. Five functions were reportedly found to be common to the leadership role:

Advances the purpose of the group

Administers

Inspires greater activity or sets the pace for the group

Makes the individual member feel secure of his place in the group

Acts without regard to his own self interest.

A review of the literature also indicates that most of the studies done on administrative leadership are in the areas of:

1. Description of the Managerial job
2. Measuring and Predicting Managerial Effectiveness
3. Description of Managerial behavior.

#### Description of the Managerial Job

Stewart (52:79) lists three methods commonly used in studying what managers actually do on their jobs:

1. An observer may watch the manager and record what the manager does.
2. The manager may be asked to keep his own record or diary of his own activities during a work day.
3. A manager may be asked to estimate how he spends his time or he may use a prepared checklist of jobs, duties, or behaviors to indicate what he perceives to be the relatively more and less important behavioral elements and requirements of his job.

Kay and Meyer (35:411-418) are of the opinion that the questionnaire approach is as useful and valid as the observation method in comparing work patterns. The observation method is more time-consuming and more expensive to administer.

Flanagan (13:327-358) developed a method of sampling jobs and focusing on managerial behavior - the Critical



Incident Technique. Using this method, qualified observers were employed to report, as stories or anecdotes, tasks performed by managers which were either effective or ineffective in accomplishing parts of their jobs.

The first and the most frequently cited observational study was done by Carlson (6) in which he used the executives themselves as well as those who work for them--secretaries, personal assistants, telephone operators and others--as reporters. The study was on nine Swedish and one French executive and covered a period of four weeks.

Burns (5) also did a similar study on 76 British top managers, and Dubin and Spray (10) did a study of eight executives in different settings. The executives were asked to keep their own record and the investigators found that no two executives had similar patterns. Horne and Lupton (31) obtained managers' activity records from 66 managers and their secretaries and assistants from various firms and one of their conclusions is that no differences in behavioral patterns were shown across companies of widely differing size and technology.

However, some authors argue against recording all job behavior episodes. They hold that activity sampling could usefully be employed for learning what managers do in their jobs (44, 36, 35).

Studies on the comparison of behavioral requirements of

different managerial jobs have been done by Hamphill (25) and Stewart (52).

Hemphill's 1959 investigation (25) involved 93 executives from five different management levels, and five different functions. He asked them to complete a 575-item Executive Position Description Questionnaire (EPDQ) on an eight-step scale, indicating which one of the items was part of their jobs as executives. He computed correlations between all possible pairs of respondents. He then used factor analysis of the matrix of correlations to identify clusters or groupings of jobs that were similar to one another but different from those in other factors.

On the other hand, Stewart (52) asked 160 managers to record all job behavior incidents of more than five minutes' duration on a recording form. Managers in many functions, at different levels, and from different-sized companies were chosen to take part in the study. She then examined, statistically, the similarities and differences between every possible pair of jobs and she found five clusters or groupings of jobs.

#### Measuring and Predicting Managerial Effectiveness

According to Guion (17:466):

The success of an executive lies largely in meeting major organization goals through the coordinated efforts of his organization; in part, at least, these efforts depend upon the



kind of influence the executive has upon those whose work his own behavior touches. . . . The executive's own behavior contributes to the achievement of organizational goals only by its influence on the perceptions, attitudes, and motives of other people in the organization and on their subsequent behavior.

The major organizational goals according to Guion include factors such as industry leadership, long-term organizational growth, internal organizational stability, organizational effectiveness, maintenance of high employee morale, and selection and development of effective subordinates. But the problem is that it is difficult to measure the effectiveness of a manager, based on how successful he is in achieving organizational goals.

It is, therefore, not surprising to see that measuring effectiveness and goal achievement has been a debatable topic among industrial psychologists, and many of them do not agree that there are completely satisfactory answers to the issues of measuring managerial effectiveness. Here are some methods used in measuring managerial effectiveness.

Merrihue and Katzell (45) have developed an Employee Relations Index (ERI). First they combined eight indicators such as absence rate, separation rate, work stoppages, into a single index. Working in several plants of the General Electric Company, they sought to use the index as an indirect indicator of managerial effectiveness. The hope did not materialize and General Electric has since discontinued

its use.

Vielhuber and Gottheil (58) also reported an instance where a commonly used Aptitude for Service ratings correlated with judgments irrelevant to the job. They asked four Army officers at West Point to rate the appearance of 117 entering Cadets solely on the basis of each Cadet's statement of his name and home address. The combined ratings of the four officers correlated .31 with Aptitude for Service ratings made by peers and superiors after fourteen weeks at West Point. This suggests that appearance and manner can, and sometimes still, affect ratings of effectiveness.

Other methods used in measuring and predicting managerial effectiveness include maximum performance measures, typical behavior measures, the Rorschach test and many of its off-shoots, the Thematic Apperception Test, and various types of handwriting analyses.

### Description of Managerial Style

One of the often cited methods used in the study of Managerial Style is the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (56). A review of the literature seems to indicate that the study of managerial style has its roots in the human relations movement which had its beginnings in the work of Kurt Lewin and his associates and in the Western Electric studies by Elton Mayo. The original theme of the

human relations approach has since been revised, but it is present in the works of McGregor (43), Argyris (12) and Rensis Likert (41, 42).

The Development of the Leader Behavior Description  
Questionnaire (LBDQ)

In preparing this section, the investigator depended heavily on two main sources - Stogdill and Coons (56) and the Ph.D. dissertation of Kenneth H. Blanchard, Cornell University, 1967.

The LBDQ was developed as part of the Ohio State Leadership Studies initiated in 1945. The studies were an attempt at an interdisciplinary approach to the study of leadership; and psychologists, sociologists, and economists all contributed to the work.

The LBDQ was originated by Hemphill (23) and expanded by a co-operative effort of all the scholars involved, and it has been used in a wide variety of situations: the military forces, industrial plants, educational institutions, and student and civilian groups and organizations.

The LBDQ was developed as an attempt "to develop an objective method for describing how a leader carries out his activities" (56:7).

The staff defined leadership as the "behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group

toward a shared goal," (56:8-13). First they developed nine areas which they designated as dimensions of leader behavior:

Integration	Communication	Production Emphasis
Representation	Fraternization	Organization
Evaluation	Initiation	Domination

Each staff member of the Personnel Research Board then listed items of behavior which seemed to apply to these dimensions. In addition, other items were obtained from outside sources until 1,790 items were accumulated. 150 of these were selected and the questionnaire was made into a multiple-choice format on a five-point scale ranging from A thru E.

The original test was administered to 357 individuals, the findings from which were found to be inconclusive.

Halpin and Winer (19) then used the LBDQ in a study of Air Force personnel after they had reduced the items to 130 and the dimensions to eight. After a factor analysis of the dimensions, four factors of leader behavior emerged: Consideration, Initiating Structure, Production Emphasis and Social Awareness, with the first two factors accounting for 83.2 percent of the total factor variance.

Halpin and Winer (19) then decided to stop the other two factors and they concentrated on developing the best short scale for describing Consideration and Initiating

Structure. The remaining 50 items were not scored, and the scale was found to be highly reliable enough for practical use.

The two scales are correlated to a moderate degree, but are sufficiently independent to permit the use of the Consideration and Initiating Structure Scales as measures of different kinds of behavior. Different persons describing the same leader show significant similarity in their descriptions (59:51).

Halpin (20) also used the LBDQ in another study of aircraft commanders to study the relationship between leader behavior and effectiveness and concluded that:

In short, our findings suggest that to select a leader who is likely to satisfy both his crew and his superiors, we do best by choosing an aircraft commander who is above average on both leader behavior dimensions. (20:60)

Hemphill (24) did a study of the relationship between the leader behavior of department chairmen and the reputation of their departments for being well administered in 22 departments in a Liberal Arts College. He concluded that:

Those departments with best 'reputations' for good administration have chairmen who are described as above average on both Consideration and Initiating Structure and as more nearly meeting the behavior expected of an ideal chairman. (24:85)

Halpin (18) has also used the LBDQ in a study of 50 Ohio School superintendents. Each superintendent described himself and he was also described by members of his faculty, and members of his board of education.

Thus, so far, the LBDQ has been shown to be a reliable research instrument which yields two basic dimensions of Leadership - Initiating Structure and Consideration.



## C H A P T E R    I I I

### PROCEDURE

#### The Research Instruments

Two questionnaires were used in this study. The first one is the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ)\*.

The LBDQ. The LBDQ, described in Chapter II, is composed of a series of short, descriptive statements of ways in which the behavior of a leader may be described. According to Stogdill and Shartle (54:57), self-descriptions of leader behavior as measured by the LBDQ are not highly correlated with other variables which might be regarded as criteria of "goodness." On the other hand, subordinates tend to describe those who occupy higher level positions and those whom they nominate most frequently for best leader in more favorable terms. They claimed that research results have shown that subordinates who are not performing up to their own expectations tend to describe their superiors in less favorable terms, and that ratings of leader effectiveness by superiors fail to show high correlations with leader behavior descriptions by self and by subordinates.

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\*The LBDQ was copyrighted by the Ohio State University in 1952. Permission to use the LBDQ in this study has been granted. (See Appendices A, B, and E.)



They concluded that descriptions of leader behavior by subordinates show more promise as criterion measures.

For the purpose of this study, the short form of the LBDQ was used. The manager of each educational broadcasting station included in the study and four out of those who report directly to each of these managers were asked to indicate the frequency with which their manager engages in a form of behavior by checking one of five adverbs: always, often, occasionally, seldom, never.

Halpin (18:28) has established that "Earlier experience with the LBDQ indicated that average scores computed on the basis of five of seven descriptions furnished reasonably stable scores that could be used as indices of the leader's behavior."

Each one of the two dimensions measured by the LBDQ--Initiating Structure and Consideration--contains 15 items and each item is scored on a scale from 4 to 0. Consequently, the theoretical range of scores on each dimension is from 0 to 60. Actually, the questionnaire given to each respondent contains 40 questions. See Appendices A and B for the questionnaires as presented to the respondents.

The 15 items scored for each dimension are listed below.

Item No.Initiating Structure

- 2 He makes his attitudes clear to the staff
- 4 He tries out his new ideas with the staff
- 7 He rules with an iron hand
- 9 He criticizes poor work
- 11 He speaks in a manner not to be questioned
- 14 He assigns staff members to particular tasks
- 16 He schedules the work to be done
- 17 He maintains definite standards of performance
- 22 He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines
- 24 He encourages the use of uniform procedures
- 27 He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by staff members
- 29 He asks that staff members follow standard rules and regulations
- 32 He lets staff members know what is expected of them
- 35 He sees to it that staff members are working to capacity
- 39 He sees to it that the work at the station is co-ordinated

Item No.Consideration

- 1 He does personal favors for staff members
- 3 He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff
- 6 He is easy to understand
- 8 He finds time to listen to staff members
- 12 He keeps to himself
- 13 He looks out for the personal welfare of individual staff members
- 18 He refuses to explain his actions
- 20 He acts without consulting his staff
- 21 He backs up staff members in their actions
- 23 He treats all staff members as his equals
- 26 He is willing to make changes
- 28 He is friendly and approachable
- 31 He makes staff members feel at ease when talking to them
- 34 He puts suggestions made by the staff into operation
- 38 He gets the staff's approval in important matters before going ahead

Items 12, 18 and 20 are scored negatively

Items 5, 10, 15, 19, 25, 30, 33, 36, 37 and 40 in the questionnaire are not scored on either dimension.

The Organizational Goals Questionnaire. The Organizational Goals Questionnaire is the other questionnaire used. It was developed by the investigator, based on the Goal Achievement Questionnaire used by James W. Rhea in his Ph.D. dissertation, Ohio University, 1970.\*

For differences between the two questionnaires, see Appendices C and D.

The Organizational Goals Questionnaire is very short, specifically related to the activities of educational broadcasting, and each one of the items is scored on a scale from 4 to 0.

#### Procedure for Collecting and Processing the Data

Subjects. The Eastern Public Radio Network served as the basis for choosing the subject of this investigation. Of the eight radio stations in this informal regional network, four are affiliated with educational television stations and the other four are not:

<u>Location of EPRN Member</u>	<u>Not Affiliated with Tele- vision Station</u>	<u>Affiliated with Tele- vision station</u>	<u>Affiliated Station</u>
Albany, N.Y.	WAMC (FM)	-	-
Amherst, Mass.	WFCR (FM)	-	-
Boston, Mass.	-	WGBH - FM	WGBH-TV
Boston, Mass.	WBUR (FM)	-	-
Hershey, Pa.	-	WITF - FM	WITF-TV
Orono, Maine	-	WMEH - FM	WMEH-TV
Philadelphia, Pa.	-	WUHY - FM	WUHY-TV
Washington, D.C.	WAMU (FM)	-	-

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\*Permission to use the questionnaire in this study has been granted. (See Appendices C, D and F.)

Therefore, the investigation was done at four radio stations not affiliated with television stations, four radio stations affiliated with television stations, and four educational television stations.

### Collecting The Data

Organizational Goals Questionnaire. Initially, the Organizational Goals Questionnaire was administered to ten members of a "panel of experts," one at a time, and without each one knowing who the other members of the panel were. In setting up the panel, the investigator chose mostly people whose practices and policies on the national level affected the development of educational broadcasting in this country at the time the investigation was conducted. Only two of them were managers in their own right, and their stations were not included in this study.

John W. Macy	President, Corporation for Public Broadcasting (CPB)
William G. Harley	President, National Association of Educational Broadcasting (NAEB)
Donal R. Quayle	President, National Public Radio (NPR)
Hartford N. Gunn, Jr.	President, Public Broadcasting Service (PBS)
Albert L. Hulsen	Director of Radio Activities, CPB
John P. Whitherspoon	Director of Television Activities, CPB
Frank Gillard	Consultant to the CPB
Russell Raycroft	Communication Consultant

Bernard Mayes

Director of Radio, KQED-FM, San  
Francisco, Ca.

Frederick Breitenfeld,  
Jr.

Executive Director, WMPB-TV,  
Baltimore, Maryland.

Most of the questionnaires were administered in person by the investigator, and of the ten questionnaires only one was not usable, because most of the questions were unanswered.

Each member of the panel was asked to rate each of the seventeen goals contained in the questionnaire as to how important the goals should be to an effective manager using any one of the following five descriptions:

Extremely important, quite important, fairly  
important, not too important, and not important.

(See Appendix D).

The questionnaire was then personally administered to the manager of each of the stations included in the study.  
(See Appendix D).

LBDQ. Each of the Station Managers of the stations in this study was contacted by the investigator to obtain permission to visit the station and administer the questionnaire. The investigator explained the intent of the study and guaranteed that the results would be reported anonymously.

For the responses to the LBDQ, the investigator personally visited all the stations included in the study, except one of the ETV stations where someone volunteered to administer the questionnaire on behalf of the investigator. For each



station, the manager was asked to complete the LBDQ (Appendix A). In addition to the manager, four people who report directly to the manager were each asked to complete the LBDQ (Appendix B), except for one of the radio stations where there were only three other employees working at the station besides the manager.

In order to get some measure of reliability and consistency, the four people asked to complete the questionnaire at each station were: the program director, the chief engineer, the secretary, and one other employee who also reports directly to the manager.

#### Processing The Data

After all the raw data had been collected, the investigator personally scored the instruments. Because of the small number of respondents involved in the study, both the Organizational Goal Questionnaire and the LBDQ were hand-scored.

Individual scores were then transferred to work sheets from which the findings in the next chapter were developed.

Because of the small number of stations involved in this study, the investigator used non-parametric (Distribution-Free) statistical tests to analyze the data. Two Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test and one Mann-Whitney U test were used in the analysis. In addition, one Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and five Spearman



rank correlation coefficients were calculated and tested.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

This study attempted to provide data which would indicate whether there is a pattern of leadership style and behavior present in the management of educational broadcasting stations, and to find if certain types of leadership style and behavior tend to make some managers more effective than other managers.

This chapter will present the data gathered in an attempt to prove or disprove each of the hypotheses listed in Chapter I. Stations 1 - 4 are radio stations not affiliated with ETV stations. Stations 5 - 8 are radio stations affiliated with ETV, and stations 9 - 12 are the ETV stations with which stations 5 - 8 are affiliated.

#### Patterns of Leadership Behavior

Quadrant Placement was determined by using the median of the score for each dimension as the mid-point, and then plotting the scores for each station on a graph\*. Initiating Structure was plotted on the X axis and Consideration was plotted on the Y axis (See Tables 1 and 1(a), and Figures 1, 2, and 3).

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\*It was decided that the median of the scores be used rather than the average of the scores or 30, the mid-point of the total scores obtainable, because the median tends to maximize the number of differences.

Table 1: LBDQ Raw Scores and Quadrants

<u>MANAGERS</u>			
<u>Stations</u>	<u>Initiating Structure</u>	<u>Consideration</u>	<u>Quadrants</u>
1	45	45	II
2	48	40	I
3	46	51	II
4	45	40	I
5	44	45	II
6	48	37	I
7	37	40	IV
8	48	40	I
9	38	42	III/IV
10	42	42	III/IV
11	33	44	III
12	40	41	IV
<u>STAFF</u>			
1	25	37	IV
2	44	43	II
3	45	53	II
4	45	45	II
5	21	33	IV
6	37	39	IV
7	36	43	III
8	49	33	I
9	46	49	II
10	40	44	III
11	41	36	IV
12	40	48	III
(a)	Median	43	42
(b)	Mean	41	43
(c)	Standard deviation	7	5
(d)	Range	21-47	33-51

Table 1(a): Quadrant Positions

<u>Station No.</u>	<u>Manager</u>	<u>Staff</u>
1	II	IV
2	I	II
3	II	II
4	I	II
5	II	IV
6	I	IV
7	IV	III
8	I	I
9	III/IV	II
10	III/IV	III
11	III	IV
12	IV	III

Figure 1: Distribution of LBDQ Scores for radio stations not affiliated with ETV Stations

Median for Initiating Structure = 43  
 Median for Consideration = 42  
 • Represents Scores for Staff  
 X Represents Scores for Managers

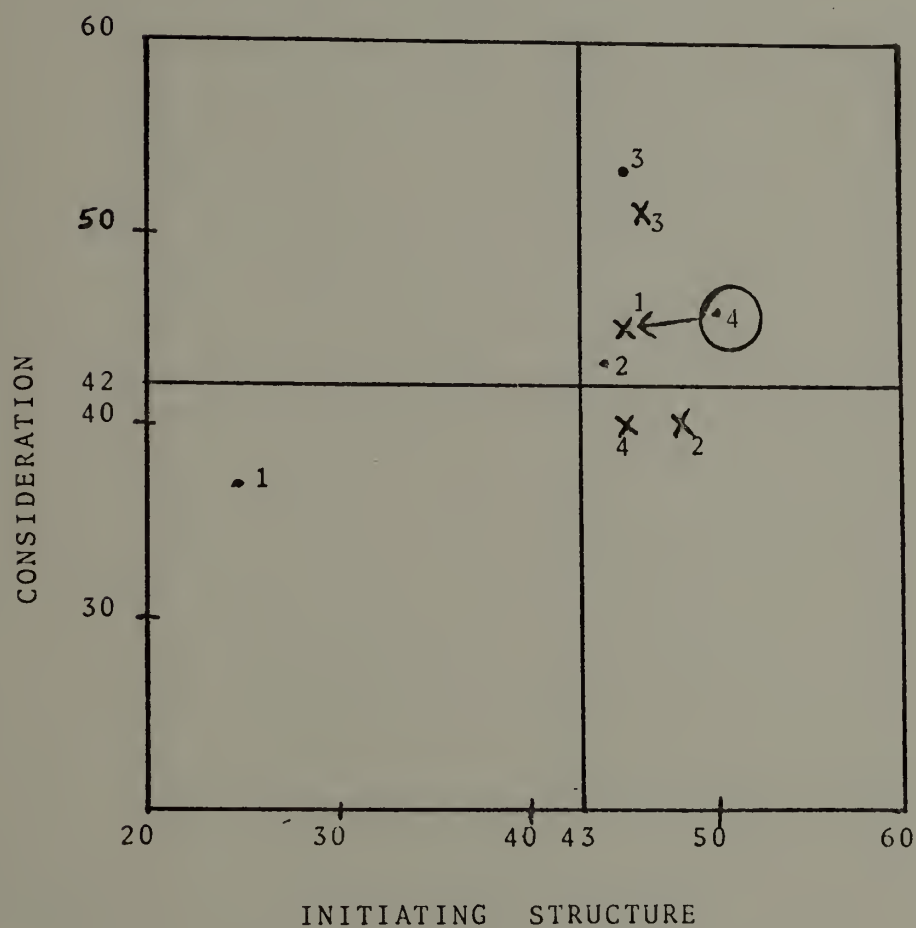


Figure 2: Distribution of LBDQ Scores for radio stations affiliated with ETV stations

Median for Initiating Structure = 43

Median for Consideration = 42

• Represents Scores for Staff

X Represents Scores for Managers

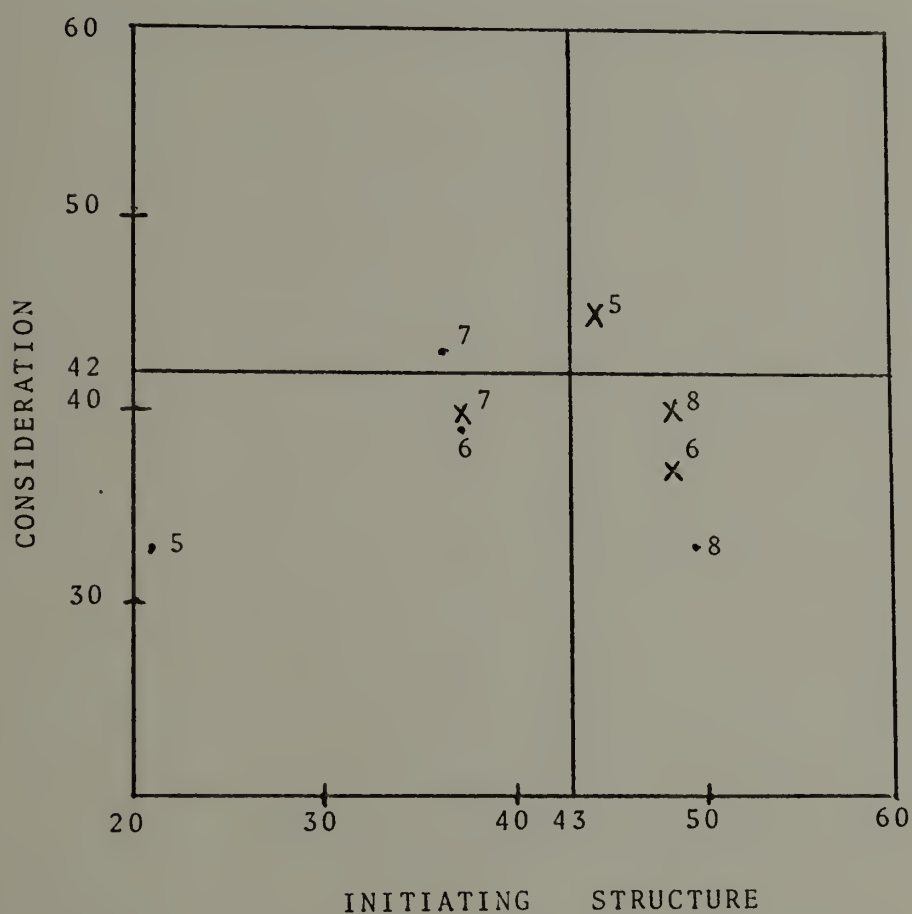




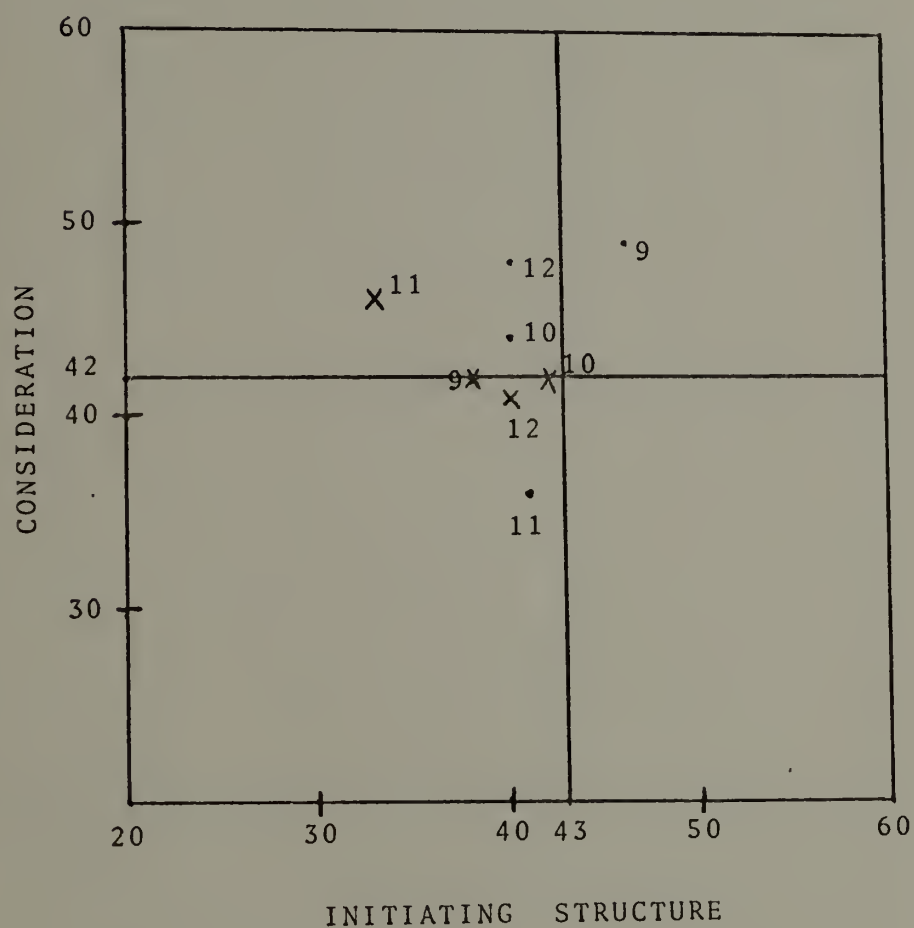
Figure 3: Distribution of LBDQ Scores for ETV Stations

Median for Initiating Structure = 43

Median for Consideration = 42

Represents Scores for Staff

X Represents Scores for Managers



An examination of Figure 1 reveals that for the four radio stations not affiliated with ETV, the manager of Station Number 1 perceives himself as operating in Quadrant II while his staff perceives him as being in Quadrant IV. For Station Number 2, the manager sees himself as operating in Quadrant I and his staff sees him in Quadrant II. Both the manager of Station Number 3 and the staff see the manager as operating in Quadrant II, and the manager of Station Number 4 sees himself as operating in Quadrant I but his staff sees him as operating in Quadrant II. Thus, there is agreement only at Station Number 3.

Figure 2 also reveals one agreement for radio stations affiliated with ETV. The manager at Station Number 5 sees himself as operating in Quadrant II, his staff put him in Quadrant IV. The manager of Station Number 6 perceives himself as operating in Quadrant I, but his staff sees the manager as operating in Quadrant IV. The managers of Station Numbers 7 and 8 perceive themselves as operating in Quadrants IV and I respectively, but the staff at Station Number 7 sees the manager as operating in Quadrant III and the staff at Station Number 8 put their manager in Quadrant I, this is the only station where agreement occurs.

For ETV stations with which Stations 5, 6, 7, and 8 are affiliated, Figure 3 shows that the manager of Station Number 9 perceives himself as operating between Quadrants

III and IV, and his staff put him in Quadrant II. According to the manager of Station Number 10, he also operates somewhere between Quadrants III and IV, and his staff sees him as operating in Quadrant III. The manager of Station Number 11 sees himself as operating in Quadrant III while his staff sees him as operating in Quadrant IV. On the other hand, the manager of Station Number 12 sees himself as operating in Quadrant IV and his staff says he operates in Quadrant III.

The discrepancy between how a manager sees himself and how the manager is seen by his staff was calculated by dividing each LBDQ score by the standard deviation of each dimension of the LBDQ score, plotting the quantity obtained and finally finding the Euclidean distance between the score of a manager and that of his staff. With this method, it was possible to achieve a common unit of measurement for each of the dimensions. (See Table 2).

Table 3 reveals that there is no apparent definite pattern of discrepancy (distance) for any of the three categories of stations included in this study. The range of the distances is from 0.4 to 4.1.

Table 2: LBDQ Raw Scores divided by appropriate Standard Deviations

<u>MANAGERS</u>				
Stations	Initiating Structure	Score divided by Standard Deviation of 7	Consideration	Score divided by Standard Deviation of 5
1	45	6.4	45	9.0
2	48	6.9	40	8.0
3	46	6.6	51	10.2
4	45	6.4	40	8.0
5	44	6.3	45	9.0
6	48	6.9	37	7.4
7	37	5.3	40	8.0
8	48	6.9	40	8.0
9	38	5.4	42	8.4
10	42	6.0	42	8.4
11	33	4.7	44	8.8
12	40	5.7	41	8.2
<u>STAFF</u>				
1	25	3.6	37	7.4
2	44	6.3	43	8.6
3	45	6.4	53	10.6
4	45	6.4	45	9.0
5	21	3.0	33	6.6
6	37	5.3	39	7.8
7	36	5.1	43	8.6
8	49	7.0	33	6.6
9	46	6.6	49	9.8
10	40	5.7	44	8.8
11	41	5.9	46	9.2
12	40	5.7	48	9.6

Table 3: Distances between Managers' Quadrant Positions  
and Staff's Quadrant Positions

<u>Station</u>	<u>Distance</u>
1	3.2
2	1.3
3	0.4
4	1.0
5	4.1
6	1.7
7	0.6
8	1.4
9	1.8
10	0.5
11	1.3
12	1.3

Perception of Goals

Panel of Experts

Table 4: Effectiveness rating by "a panel of experts."  
(Note: The experts are arranged here in a random fashion and not according to how they they were listed on p.60).

Expert No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	Total	Mean (To the nearest whole No.)
Goal No.												
1	3	3	4	2	4	3	4	3	2		28	3
2	3	3	3	4	4	2	3	4	1		27	3
3	3	0	2	3	2	4	2	4	4		24	3
4	4	2	4	3	3	4	2	4	4		30	3
5	2	2	3	0	2	4	1	1	4		19	2
6	2	3	2	0	2	3	1	1	4		18	2
7	4	3	4	3	4	4	0	4	4		30	3
8	4	3	3	4	1	4	4	4	3		30	3
9	3	4	4	2	4	2	1	3	2		25	3
10	3	4	4	4	4	2	3	3	4		31	3
11	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4		35	4
12	3	1	1	2	4	4	3	4	4		26	3
13	3	3	4	0	4	2	3	4	0		23	3
14	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4		35	4
15	4	3	2	2	4	4	3	4	4		30	3
16	2	1	2	0	2	2	0	2	3		14	2
17	1	1	0	0	3	0	0	1	1		7	1
Range	37-55										7-35	1 - 4

NOT USED. RESPONDENT FAILED TO ANSWER MOST OF THE QUESTIONS.



Table 4 indicates that there is a consensus of opinion among the experts that an effective manager would consider most of the goals contained in the Organization Goals Questionnaire as at least being "fairly important." That is, a rating of 3. While it is important to note that the consensus also indicates that only two of the goals are "extremely important" (numbers 11 and 14), the consensus is that goal number 17 is not important at all.

Concerning goal number 17, some of the respondents told the investigator that an effective manager should strive to produce better programs locally, but that the reason for such effort should not be "so as to do away with network offerings." They indicated that had the statement for goal number 17 been "Try to produce better programs locally," they would have rated it as either "extremely important" or "quite important." Some of the comments written on the questionnaires by the respondents are:

"Yes - Extremely important for good local production but not for the purpose of eliminating network programs."

"The two parts of the question complement each other as a total broadcast program service."

"Quality of local and network programs equally essential."

"An effective manager should work for balance."

"In my view, the effective manager's objective is to offer his listeners (and I insist on using the word 'offer') the best mix of programs

available to him. The motivation for improving the quality of local productions is to up-grade the standard of his schedule as a whole, not the consequential reduction in the amount of programming he takes from the network."

As can be seen in Table 5, with the managers, the goals ranged from "not important" to "extremely important." It is not relevant here to speak of the "consensus of organizational goal perception by the managers," since one of the aims of the study is to compare how each manager perceives the goals with how the experts perceive the goals.

#### Testing the Hypotheses

In testing the hypotheses, two Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks tests (49:75-83) were run using the scores for Initiating Structure and Consideration. In addition, one Mann-Whitney U test was run (49:116-127), and one Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (16:192-204), and five Spearman rank correlation coefficients were calculated and tested (49:202-213) using the various scores obtained from the LBDQ, the Organizational Goals Questionnaire, LBDQ Quadrants and distances.

Hypothesis I: For Consideration, self-description scores of managers of educational broadcasting stations will not differ from scores ascribed to these managers for this dimension by those who report to them.

Q

**(Note:**

Q

Range

Table 6: Analysis of Consideration scores

<u>Stations</u>	<u>Managers</u>	<u>Staff</u>	<u>Sign</u>	<u>d</u>	<u>Rank</u>
1	45	37	+	8	10.5
2	40	43	-	3	4.5
3	51	53	-	2	2
4	40	45	-	5	6
5	45	33	+	12	12
6	37	39	-	2	2
7	40	43	-	3	4.5
8	40	33	+	7	8
9	42	49	-	7	8
10	42	44	-	2	2
11	44	36	+	8	10.5
12	41	48	-	7	8

Positive Like-signed ranks = 51

Negative Like-signed ranks = 37

Using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks tests (49:75-83), the T value of 37 which is the smaller of the sum of like-signed ranks is not small enough to be significant for  $N = 12$ . Therefore, hypothesis I can not be rejected.

That is, for Consideration, self-description scores of managers of the stations included in this study are not significantly different from scores ascribed to these managers by those who report to them.

Hypothesis II: For Initiating Structure, self-description scores of managers of educational broadcasting stations will not differ from scores ascribed to these managers for this dimension by those who report to them.

In Table 7, using the Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test (49:75-83), the T value of 15 which is the smaller of the sum of the like-signed ranks is not small enough to be significant for  $N = 10$ . Therefore, Hypothesis II can not be rejected.

That is, for Initiating Structure, self-description scores of managers of the stations included in this study are not significantly different from scores ascribed to these managers by those who report to them, (see Table 6).

Table 7. Analysis of Initiating Structure Scores

<u>Stations</u>	<u>Managers</u>	<u>Staff</u>	<u>Sign</u>	<u>d</u>	<u>Rank</u>
1	45	25	-	20	9
2	48	44	-	4	5
3	46	45	-	1	2
4	45	45		0	
5	44	21	-	23	10
6	48	37	-	11	8
7	37	36	-	1	2
8	48	49	+	1	2
9	38	46	+	8	6.5
10	42	40	-	2	4
11	33	41	+	8	6.5
12	40	40		0	

Positive like-signed ranks = 15

Negative like-signed ranks = 40



Hypothesis III: There will be no difference between the Leadership Quadrants in which the managers of educational radio stations not affiliated with ETV stations will place themselves and the Leadership Quadrants in which the managers of educational radio stations affiliated with ETV stations will place themselves.

In testing this hypothesis, it was assumed that quadrant placement forms an ordinal scale. That is, quadrant 2 is higher than quadrant 1; 3 is higher than 2; and 4 is higher than 3.

In Table 8, using the Mann-Whitney U test, a test used in finding out whether two independent groups have been drawn from the same population, (49:116-127), for  $n_1 = 4$  and  $n_2 = 4$ ,  $U = 4$  has a probability of 0.171 of occurring under this null hypothesis. Therefore, Hypothesis III can not be rejected.

That is, for the stations included in this study, managers of educational radio stations not affiliated with ETV stations did not rate themselves differently for Leadership Quadrants as the managers of educational radio stations affiliated with ETV stations rated themselves.

Table 8. Comparison of Leadership Quadrants

<u>Radio Stations not affiliated with ETV</u>	<u>Quadrants</u>
1	2
2	1
3	2
4	1
<u>Radio Stations affiliated with ETV</u>	<u>Quadrants</u>
5	2
6	1
7	4
8	1

Hypothesis IV: There will be no relationship between the profile of perceived importance of organizational goals by managers of educational broadcasting stations and perceived importance of organizational goals by "a panel of experts."

For the 17 items in the Organizational Goals Questionnaire,  $n-2 = 15$  (16:191-203). To be significant at the 0.05 level,  $r$  should be 0.482 or greater. Therefore, Hypothesis IV must be rejected (see Table 9) for station numbers 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 which have  $r$ 's significantly greater than 0.482. Only one station out of 20 would be significant at this level due to chance factors alone.

That is, for the managers of 9 out of 12 stations included in this study, there is a relationship between the profile of how a manager perceived the importance of his organizational goals and the perceived importance of these goals by "a panel of experts."

Hypothesis V: There will be no relationship between (a) the correlation of managers' perception of importance of organizational goals with the perception of these goals by "a panel of experts," and (b) the discrepancy between the way the managers perceive themselves and the way these managers are perceived by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ.

Table 9: Correlation of Profiles of Organizational Goals

<u>Station</u>	<u>Correlation with "experts"</u> <u>(r)</u>
1	.24
2	-.13
3	.81
4	.34
5	.62
6	.53
7	.65
8	.84
9	.72
10	.60
11	.77
12	.61

For the 12 stations,  $r_s$ , the critical value for  $n = 12$  at the 0.10 level = 0.506 (49:202-213). In this case, (see Tables 10 and 11),  $r_s = -0.14$  is too small to be significant. Therefore Hypothesis V can not be rejected.

That is, for the stations included in this study, there is no relationship between (a) how the managers perceive their organizational goals and (b) the discrepancy between the way they see themselves and the way they are seen by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ.

Hypothesis VI: There will be no relationship between (a) the Quadrants in which managers will place themselves and (b) the discrepancy between the way they perceive themselves and the way they are perceived by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ.

For the 12 stations,  $r_s$ , the critical value for  $n = 12$  at the 0.10 level = .506 (49:202-213). In this case, (Tables 12,13),  $r_s = -0.22$  is too small to be significant. Therefore, Hypothesis VI can not be rejected.

That is, for the stations included in this study, there is no relationship between (a) the LBDQ Leadership Quadrant in which the managers placed themselves and (b) the discrepancy between the way they see themselves and the way they are seen by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ.

Table 10: Correlation with "experts" and LBDQ Distance

<u>Stations</u>	<u>Correlation with "experts"</u>	<u>LBDQ Distance</u>
1	.24	3.2
2	-.13	1.3
3	.81	.4
4	.34	1.0
5	.62	4.1
6	.53	1.7
7	.65	.6
8	.84	1.4
9	.72	1.8
10	.60	.5
11	.77	1.3
12	.61	1.3



Table 11. Ranking of LBDQ Distances and Managers' Goal Correlations with experts

<u>Stations</u>	<u>Correlation with "experts"</u>	<u>LBDQ Distance</u>
1	2	11
2	1	6
3	11	1
4	3	4
5	7	12
6	4	9
7	8	3
8	12	8
9	9	10
10	5	2
11	10	6
12	6	6

Correlation ( $r_s$ ) = -0.14

Table 12: Managers' Quadrants and LBDQ Distances

<u>Station</u>	<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>LBDQ Distance</u>
1	2	3.2
2	1	1.3
3	2	.4
4	1	1.0
5	2	4.1
6	1	1.7
7	4	.6
8	1	1.4
9	3/4	1.8
10	3/4	.5
11	3	1.3
12	4	1.3

Table 13: Ranking of Managers' Quadrants and LBDQ Distances

<u>Station</u>	<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>LBDQ Distance</u>
1	6	11
2	2.5	6
3	6	1
4	2.5	4
5	6	12
6	2.5	9
7	11.5	3
8	2.5	8
9	9.5	10
10	9.5	2
11	8	6
12	11.5	6

Correlation ( $r_s$ ) = -0.22

Hypothesis VII: There will be no relationship between (a) the discrepancy between the way managers perceive themselves and the way they are perceived by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ and (b) the Quadrants in which managers are placed by those who report to them.

For the 12 stations,  $r_s$ , the critical value for  $n = 12$  at the 0.10 level = 0.506 (49:202-213). In this case, (Tables 14,15),  $r_s = 0.37$  is too small to be significant. Therefore, Hypothesis VII can not be rejected.

That is, for the stations included in this study, there is no relationship between (a) the discrepancy between the way the managers see themselves and the way they are seen by their staff on the two dimensions of the LBDQ and (b) the LBDQ Leadership Quadrants in which the managers are placed by those who report to them.

Hypothesis VIII: There will be no relationship between (a) the Quadrants in which managers place themselves on the two dimensions of the LBDQ and (b) the correlation of the perception of organizational goals by managers with the perception of these goals by a "panel of experts."

For the 12 stations,  $r_s$ , the critical value for  $n = 12$  at the 0.10 level = 0.506 (49:202-213). In this case, (see Tables 16 & 17),  $r_s = 0.27$  is too small to be significant. Therefore, Hypothesis VIII can not be rejected.

Table 14: Staff's Quadrants and LBDQ Distances

<u>Station</u>	<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>LBDQ Distance</u>
1	4	3.2
2	2	1.3
3	2	0.4
4	2	1.0
5	4	4.1
6	4	1.7
7	3	0.6
8	1	1.4
9	2	1.8
10	3	0.5
11	4	1.3
12	3	1.3

Table 15: Ranking of Staff's Quadrants and LBDQ Distances

<u>Station</u>	<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>LBDQ Distance</u>
1	10.5	11
2	3.5	6
3	3.5	1
4	3.5	4
5	10.5	12
6	10.5	9
7	7	3
8	1	8
9	3.5	10
10	7	2
11	10.5	6
12	7	6

Correlation ( $r_s$ ) = 0.37



Table 16: Managers' Quadrants and Goal Correlations

<u>Station</u>	<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Goal Correlation</u>
1	2	.24
2	1	-.13
3	2	.81
4	1	.34
5	3	.62
6	1	.53
7	4	.65
8	1	.84
9	3/4	.72
10	3/4	.60
11	3	.77
12	4	.61

Table 17: Ranking of Managers' Quadrants and Goal Correlations

<u>Station</u>	<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Goal Correlation</u>
1	6	2
2	2.5	1
3	6	11
4	2.5	3
5	6	7
6	2.5	4
7	11.5	8
8	2.5	12
9	9.5	9
10	9.5	5
11	8	10
12	11.5	6

Correlation ( $r_s$ ) = 0.27

That is, for the stations included in this study, there is no relationship between (a) the Quadrants in which the managers placed themselves and (b) the correlation of their perception of organizational goals with the perception of these goals by "a panel of experts."

Hypothesis IX: There will be no relationship between (a) the Quadrants in which managers are placed by those who report to them and (b) the correlation of the perception of organizational goals by managers with the perception of these goals by "a panel of experts."

For the 12 stations,  $r_s$ , the critical value for  $n = 12$  at the 0.10 level = 0.506 (49:202-213). In this case, (Tables 18,19),  $r_s = -0.27$  is too small to be significant. Therefore, Hypothesis IX can not be rejected.

That is, for the stations included in this study, there is no relationship between (a) the Quadrants in which managers are placed by those who report to them and (b) the correlation of their perception of organizational goals with the perception of these goals by "a panel of experts."

Table 18: Staff's Quadrants and Goal Correlations

<u>Station</u>	<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Goal Correlation</u>
1	4	.24
2	2	-.13
3	2	.81
4	2	.34
5	4	.62
6	4	.53
7	3	.65
8	1	.84
9	2	.72
10	3	.60
11	4	.77
12	3	.61

Table 19: Ranking of Staff's Quadrants and Goal Correlation

<u>Station</u>	<u>Quadrant</u>	<u>Goal Correlation</u>
1	10.5	2
2	3.5	1
3	3.5	11
4	3.5	3
5	10.5	7
6	10.5	4
7	7	8
8	1	12
9	3.5	9
10	7	5
11	10.5	10
12	7	6

Correlation ( $r_s$ ) = -0.27

## C H A P T E R    V

### DISCUSSION AND SUMMARY

A discussion and a summary of the various aspects of this study is presented in this chapter.

The purpose of this study was:

- a) To study leadership styles in educational broadcasting as perceived by the leaders and their behavior as perceived by those who report to them;
- b) To examine the differences and the similarities in leadership styles at different types of educational broadcasting stations;
- c) To see if different leadership styles tend to be effective at different types of educational broadcasting stations.

Leadership styles and behavior were measured by means of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) at 12 educational broadcasting stations. Four of these were radio stations not affiliated with educational television stations, another four were radio stations affiliated with educational television stations, and the remaining four were the educational television stations to which the four radio stations were affiliated.

On the other hand, effectiveness was measured at the

same twelve stations, by means of the Organizational Goals Questionnaire. A panel of experts was first asked to rate a list of organizational goals as to the importance of each goal. A consensus was thus obtained. Each manager was then asked to rate the same set of questions and the profile of each manager's response was correlated with the consensus of the panel of experts. High correlation was accepted to be equivalent to effectiveness.

### Hypotheses

The first hypothesis tested was that for Consideration, self-description scores of managers will not be different from scores ascribed to these managers for this dimension by those who report to them. Based on the analysis used in this study, the investigator was not able to reject this null hypothesis, because the differences for the twelve stations were not large enough to reach significance.

However, an examination of Table 6 indicates a preponderance of negative signs. This suggests that the hypothesis should be tested again using a larger sample. It is important to know if staff members really see their managers the same way the managers see themselves on the Consideration (human-relations oriented behavior) dimension.

The second hypothesis tested was that for Initiating Structure, self-description scores of managers will not be



different from scores ascribed to these managers for this dimension by those who report to them. Based on the analysis used, the investigation could not reject this null hypothesis either. The differences for the twelve stations were not large enough.

An examination of Table 7 reveals a preponderance of negative signs. This suggests that one could get a different result with a larger sample. This needs to be pursued.

For hypotheses I and II, with all the talk about the lack of understanding and correct role-perception between staff members and station managers which one often hears at public broadcasting conventions and meetings, one would expect large differences between how managers of public broadcasting stations perceive themselves on these two dimensions, Consideration and Initiating Structure, and the way they are perceived by those who report to them.

The results obtained here suggest that either the stations included in this study are atypical, or that the managers were able to predict how their employees would rate them, or that all the talk about the lack of understanding and correct role-perception at public broadcasting stations are not valid. In which case, the often-heard joke that people engaged in the field of broadcasting are the worst internal communicators will need a lot of qualification.

Anyway, further testing of these two hypotheses will be beneficial to our understanding of the state of leadership in public broadcasting. One of the elements of Herzberg's (28) Motivation-Hygiene Theory is the type of supervision employees get. Herzberg classified "supervision" as one of the Hygiene factors. Other factors include company policies and administration, working conditions, interpersonal relations, money, status, and security. He postulated that they are not intrinsic parts of a job, but are related to the conditions under which a job is performed; they serve the primary function of preventing job dissatisfaction.

Another implication of the result obtained here is that if the managers had been shown to rate themselves as being higher on Consideration (human-relations oriented behavior) than they were rated by those who report to them, it will indicate that either the employees do not appreciate the efforts of the managers or that the managers are not performing up to the level expected of them by their employees. In either case, one can conclude that, under the assumptions of Herzberg's (28) Motivation-Hygiene Theory, the environments at the stations are unhealthy and that most of the employees are dissatisfied.

A lower self-rating on this dimension (Consideration) by the managers will indicate a greater appreciation by

employees of the managers' efforts. This difference will not be an indication of unhealthy environments as such. It will only indicate that the standards of performance set by the managers are much higher than what their employees expected.

On the other hand, a higher self-rating by the managers on the Initiating-Structure dimension will indicate that the managers perceive themselves as being more demanding than they are perceived by their employees. Since this dimension falls in the category of task-oriented behavior, such a result will indicate that the managers' level of expectation of employees' performance is low.

But a lower self-rating by managers for this dimension will indicate an unhealthy environment and the presence of dissatisfiers as described by Herzberg (28).

If further testing shows that there are no differences between the way managers rate themselves on Consideration and Initiating Structure and the way they are rated for these two dimensions by their employees, one can then very well conclude that the managers' perception of their roles are identical with how their roles are perceived by their employees. This situation, however, will not tell us whether or not the employees are dissatisfied with the environment in which they have to work.

The third hypothesis tested was that there will be no difference between the Leadership Quadrant in which managers of educational radio stations not affiliated with ETV stations will place themselves, and the Leadership Quadrant in which the managers of educational radio stations affiliated with ETV will place themselves.

Analysis indicated that this null hypothesis can not be rejected. A quick examination of Table 8 reveals that the "mean Quadrant" for each group of stations is about equal, and that most of the managers rated themselves as being in either Quadrant 1 or Quadrant 2.

There is a popular belief among managers of educational broadcasting stations that managers of educational radio stations not affiliated with an educational television station have more freedom of operation than the managers of educational radio stations affiliated with educational television stations.

Results obtained in this study do not support this belief.

On the surface though, the popular belief does look attractive. For radio stations affiliated with educational television stations, the staff is usually small and the radio stations are usually small and the radio stations are usually treated, financially, like second-class citizens. In this

type of environment with not enough staff and limited budget, it will be difficult for a manager to be low on Initiating Structure. That is, it will be difficult for him to operate in either Quadrant 3 or 4. The alternative then is either Quadrant 1 or 2.

What the result obtained in this study tells us is that even the managers of educational radio stations not affiliated with educational television stations are not low on Initiating Structure. Like their counterparts who operate in an environment where there is an educational television station, they described themselves as high on Initiating Structure, and it was concluded after analysis that the two types of managers did not describe themselves as operating in significantly different Quadrants.

This conclusion is in agreement with the belief of many management thinkers that leadership behavior is multi-dimensional. Just because there is a "big brother" ETV station around does not seem to be enough to determine the leadership behavior of the manager of an educational radio station. Many other factors are involved.

The fourth hypothesis tested was to the effect that managers of educational broadcasting stations will not see a set of organizational goals the same way "a panel of 'experts' will see these goals." It was assumed that a high correlation of a manager's profile of organizational goals (not the total score) with the opinion of a panel of

"experts" indicates effectiveness.

The null hypothesis stated here that there will be no relationship between the profile of perceived importance of organizational goals by managers of educational broadcasting stations and perceived importance of organizational goals by "a panel of experts" is equivalent to saying that all the managers are not effective.

That is, each manager's profile will be different from the consensus of what the "experts" say.

For this study, the investigator decided to compare responses from the managers with the consensus of responses from "a panel of experts." The panel was made up of people who were involved in decision-making about public broadcasting at the time the study was conducted. In one way or the other their decisions shaped the operations and the future of public broadcasting. Some of their decisions were on funding, programming, and staffing, and from time to time most of them have expressed their concern about the quality of management of public broadcasting at the local level.

For the seventeen goals in the questionnaire, it was found that 9 of the 12 managers correlated highly with the opinion of the "experts."

Of the nine stations that were found to be effective, one of them is a radio station not affiliated with ETV. Four of them are radio stations affiliated with ETV and the



remaining four were the educational television stations with which the radio stations are affiliated. Thus, effectiveness was found in all the three groups of stations included in this study.

The number of radio stations not affiliated with ETV included in the study is too small for the investigator to determine whether or not the managers of such stations are generally not effective when measured with the Organizational Goals Questionnaire.

Also, for the nine stations which were found to be effective, only one of the managers rated himself as operating in Quadrant 2. Two rated themselves as operating in Quadrant 1, two in Quadrant 3, two between Quadrants 3 and 4 and the remaining two rated themselves as operating in Quadrant 4.

Thus all four styles of leadership appeared to be effective.

The investigator found that hypothesis five which postulates that effectiveness (based on the correlation of profile of organizational goals with the opinion of a panel of experts) is not related to discrepancy between how managers see themselves and how they are seen by those who report to them, could not be rejected. There was no evidence at all for a relationship.



This also seems to lend support to the multidimensional nature of leadership behavior. In other words, it is possible that if other dimensions had been introduced into these studies in addition to the LBDQ discrepancy, some correlation between effectiveness and such other dimensions might have been found, and some other measurement of effectiveness could very well show some correlation with the LBDQ discrepancies.

It is also possible that with a much larger number of stations in a subsequent study, it could be found that the higher the correlation with a panel of "experts," the smaller the LBDQ discrepancy. As a matter of fact, the investigator expected to find that the higher the correlation with the experts, the smaller will be the LBDQ discrepancy. The investigator thought that managers who rate themselves the same way they are rated by their employees will be effective managers in general. This idea was not supported by this study. This hypothesis is worth investigating further. The question to be asked is: Is there a relationship between a manager's effectiveness and the discrepancy between how he perceives his leadership style and how he is perceived by those who report to him.

In testing hypotheses six and seven, the investigator was unable to conclude that there is any relationship between

the LBDQ Quadrants in which managers are placed, either by themselves or by those who report to them, and the discrepancy between the way they see themselves and the way they are seen by those who report to them.

Also for hypotheses eight and nine, the investigator was unable to conclude that there is a relationship between the LBDQ Quadrants and effectiveness (based on the correlation of profile of organizational goals with the opinion of a panel of experts).

This result should not be surprising. According to the situational principle of management, any particular leadership style could be effective, depending on the environmental situation, and the individuals involved.

For example, a manager in charge of a ditch-digging crew could find that, to be effective, he has to be high on Initiating Structure, and low on Consideration. That is, a Quadrant 1 Leadership style. This same Leadership style could be effective for a platoon leader in a combat situation, but inappropriate at other times.

By the same token, the head of an academic department could find that, to be effective, he has to be low on Initiating Structure and on Consideration (Quadrant 4) in dealing with his employees. But in a crisis situation, he may have to change his style and operate in another Quadrant and still

be effective.

Thus, Quadrant placement need not correlate with discrepancy and effectiveness. No matter what method is used to measure effectiveness.

Hypotheses 6, 7, 8, and 9 are really worth further investigation in light of the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership which was postulated by Hersey and Blanchard (27). A short explanation of this theory follows.

### Life Cycle Theory

This theory can only be understood in the context of previous theories which dealt with "task" and "relationship" as two dimensions of leader behavior. It was believed that these two dimensions were either/or styles of leader behavior on a continuum, ranging from authoritarian (task-oriented) to democratic (relationship-oriented) form of leader behavior.

One development of this type of thinking was the Managerial Grid of Blake and Mouton (4) in which leadership styles were described along two dimensions: Concern for Production and Concern for People. Based on a 9 point scale for each dimension, Blake and Mouton then described five leadership styles with the implication that one of them (team management) is the best style of leadership and another one (impoverished management) is the least desirable style (Figure 4).

It is possible, although inappropriate, to apply the subjective terms of Blake and Mouton to the four Quadrants of the LBDQ:

Quadrant I	Task-oriented Management
Quadrant II	Team Management
Quadrant III	Country-club Management
Quadrant IV	Impoverished Management

The Life Cycle Theory of leadership, however, is based on a curvilinear relationship between task and relationship and one other factor: the maturity of those who report to the leader. In this theory, maturity is defined by the achievement motivation, relative independence, ability to take responsibility and task-related education and experience of an individual or group. As used here, the emphasis is on psychological age rather than chronological age.

Essentially, this theory postulates that there is no "best" or normative style of leadership, but that as the level of maturity of one's followers continues to increase, appropriate leader behavior not only requires less and less structure (task) but also less and less socio-emotional support (relationships), (27). That is, leader behavior should move from (1) High structure-low consideration to (2) High structure-high consideration to (3) High consideration to low structure to (4) Low structure-low consideration (Figure 5), as the maturity of followers increases.

Figure 4: The Managerial Grid Leadership Styles

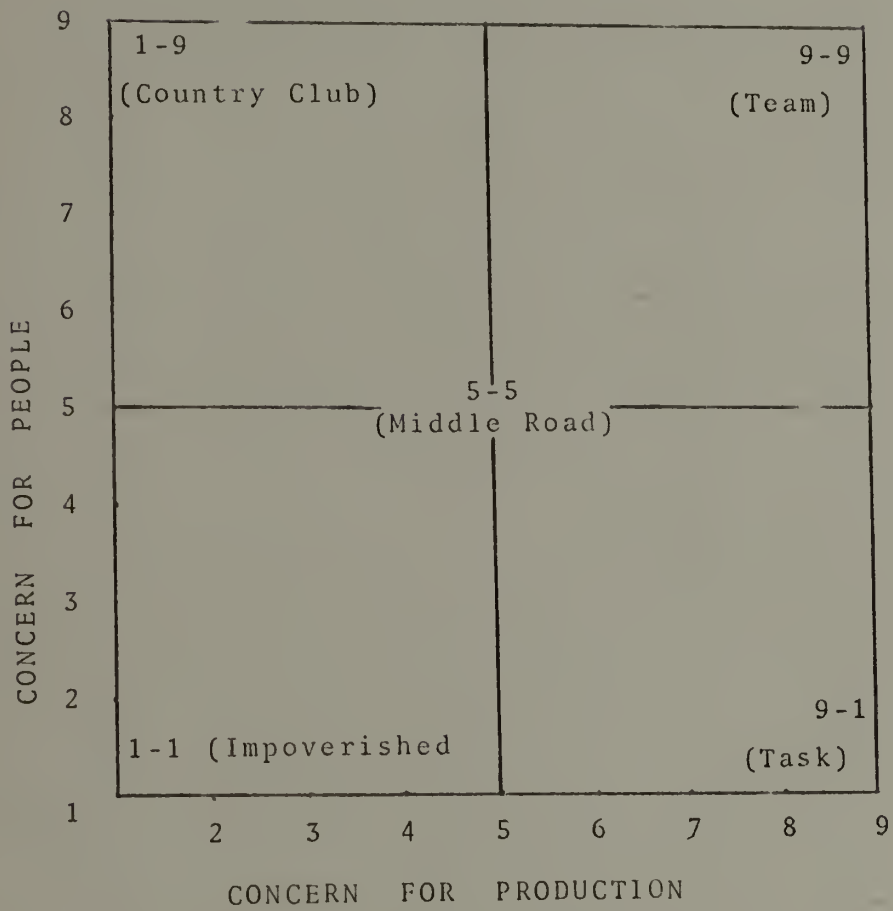
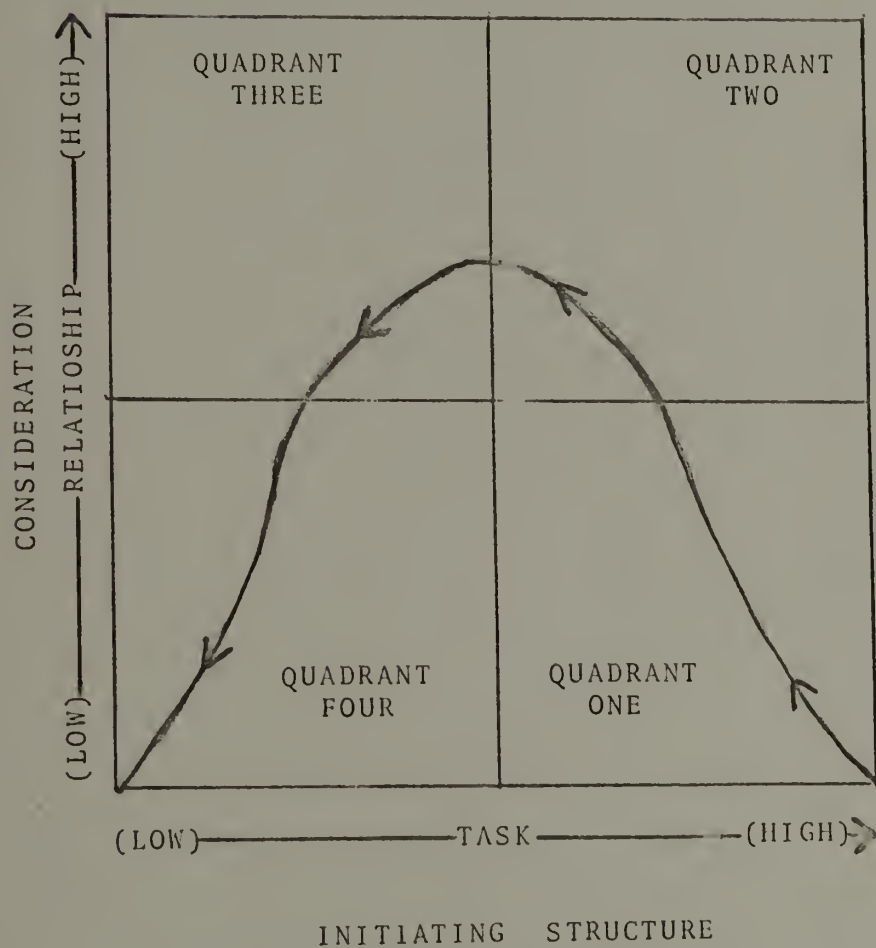


Figure 5: Curvilinear Relationship in the Life Cycle Theory



In other words, a leader who is described as operating in Quadrant 4 assumes that his followers are more matured than the followers of a leader who is described as operating in say Quadrants 3, 2, or 1.

With this in mind, it will be worthwhile to further pursue the testing of hypotheses 6, 7, 8 and 9 using a larger number of stations. The tasks to be performed will be to investigate the relationship between high-quadrant description and LBDQ discrepancy on one hand and effectiveness on the other.

#### LBDQ

Discussion in this section will concern the description of leadership behavior at the different types of educational broadcasting stations included in this study:

- (a) Radio stations not affiliated with ETV
- (b) Radio stations affiliated with ETV
- (c) ETV stations to which radio stations are affiliated.

For the radio stations not affiliated with ETV, an examination of Table 1(a) reveals that between the managers and their followers, Quadrant 2 is the most common one ascribed. That is, a Quadrant of high Initiating Structure-high Consideration. That most of the managers are described as belonging to this Quadrant should be understandable in



light of the small, close-knit group of dedicated people one often finds at these stations.

The high Initiating Structure could also be due to the fact that lack of funds usually prevents the stations from hiring enough people to work at the station, and each employee, including the manager, usually finds himself performing a lot of functions. The high Concentration is usually present, not only because the manager needs to get the cooperation of the staff, but because the nature of the business entails a lot of formal and informal collaboration and support at these stations.

For the radio stations affiliated with ETV, a look at Table 1(a) also reveals that while most of the managers see themselves as being high on Initiating Structure (Quadrants 1 and 2), the staff members see most of them as being low on this dimension (Quadrants 3 and 4). Although the differences are not statistically significant, the fact remains that there are some discrepancies. The discrepancies could be due to many factors. One of these could be a carry-over from the ETV stations with which these radio stations are affiliated where, as a necessity, there is less initiation of Structure on the part of the manager because most of the functions at ETV stations are highly specialized. Apparently, the members of the staff at these radio stations do not consider their

managers to be high on Initiating Structure, contrary to what the managers themselves think.

For the ETV stations, most of the staff members and the managers indicated that the managers operate with less Initiating Structure (Quadrants 3 and 4). This is understandable. Unlike radio stations where the manager could sometimes involve himself in the operations of the station as board operator, producer, announcer or recording engineer, most of the functions at a television station are specialized. Thus, it will be impractical for the manager to initiate the structure of many of the functions of those who report to him.

Thus, we see that the LBDQ has indicated that for the stations included in this study, while the managers of educational radio stations not affiliated with ETV are high on Initiating Structure, the managers of ETV are low on this dimension, and the managers of educational radio stations affiliated with ETV are intermediate.

### Organizational Goals

Discussion in this section will be on the managers' response to the Organizational Goal Questionnaire.

Rather than comparing each manager's total scores on the questionnaire with the average of the total scores of "a panel of experts," the investigator decided to compare the profile of each manager with the consensus of the profiles

of the experts.

Using the profile is a much better method in that it compares the relative importance of one set of responses with the relative importance of another set of responses.

Responses to a research tool such as the Organizational Goals Questionnaire can be contaminated by the "response set factor." This factor refers to a tendency by a respondent to answer a question in a general pattern - conservatively, cautiously or strongly. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the relative importance analysis was used because such a factor will not alter the relative importance of the goals.

An examination of Table 9 indicates that there is no norm or mode for the profiles in each category of stations included in the study. The second highest profile correlation (.81) comes from a radio station not affiliated with ETV. So does the lowest (-.13). This study did not indicate a pattern of goal perception peculiar to any of the 3 groups of stations. That is, the manager of a big ETV station could perceive the goals of his own station in the same pattern in which the manager of a relatively small radio station perceives his.

#### Implications for Station Management

The findings of this investigation indicate that, at least for the stations included in this study:

1. The fact that an educational radio station is affiliated with an ETV station does not necessarily mean that the leadership style of the manager of the radio station will be different from that of the manager of a radio station not affiliated with an ETV station.
2. Effectiveness or goal perception by the manager of an educational broadcasting station is not a function of whether the station is a radio station or television station. Nor is it a function of a manager's leadership style.
3. Differences occur between how managers see themselves and how they are seen by those who report to them, on the two dimensions of the LBDQ. The difference may, or may not, be significant. The important thing is for the manager to be able to evaluate how the way his employees see him affects his total operations.

#### Recommendations for Further Research

There are many different issues open for future research in the area of the management of educational broadcasting. One of the limitations of this exploratory study was that the number of stations included in the study was small. Therefore, it is recommended that further studies in this field

include a larger number of stations. This will take a lot of time and money. Further investigations recommended are:

1. A test of all the hypotheses investigated here but using a larger number of stations.
2. A test of all the hypotheses investigated here with stations that could be categorized in the traditional ways, that is, according to type of licensees is also recommended. The emphasis will be on finding out if managers of stations licensed to universities are more effective than managers of those licensed to community groups.
3. Another recommendation would be to do an intensive investigation of leadership style and behavior at a couple of stations. This will involve asking all the employees at the station to use the LBDQ to describe their manager, and then use the LBDQ again to describe the type of manager they would like. It will be useful for the manager concerned to see how he compares with the "ideal" manager his employees want.
4. A study could be made of the leadership style and behavior of departmental heads to see how these differ from the styles and behaviors of the station's chief executive. Further investigation could be done into the implication of the differences, if any.

5. Two extensions of this particular study are recommended. (a) For a station where the correlation of the profile of the manager's perception of organizational goals with the consensus of opinion of "a panel of experts" is high, and (b) for a station where there is little or no difference between the manager's score and the staff's score for Consideration and Initiating Structure, the motivation and hygiene factors, as described by Herzberg and others (28), at the station could be studied.
6. For a station where there is little or no difference between the manager's score and the staff's score for Consideration and Initiating Structure, a study could be made of what the manager actually does in the areas of planning, organizing, communicating, motivating, directing, etc.
7. Future studies could also use a different method to measure managerial effectiveness.

#### Summary

This investigation was designed

- a) To study leadership styles in educational broadcasting as perceived by the leaders and their



- behavior as perceived by those who report to them.
- b) To examine the differences and the similarities in leadership styles at different types of educational broadcasting stations.
  - c) To see if different leadership styles tend to be effective at different types of educational broadcasting stations.

Nine hypotheses were investigated in this study which involved twelve educational broadcasting stations. Four of these stations were radio stations not affiliated with ETV, another four were radio stations affiliated with ETV and the remaining four were the ETV stations to which the radio stations are affiliated.

The two research instruments used were the LBDQ and the Organizational Goals Questionnaire. Because of the small number of stations involved in the study, non-parametric (Distribution-Free) statistical tests were used in testing the hypotheses.

The last chapter of the study is on Discussion and a Summary. Discussed in this chapter were the hypotheses, the Life Cycle Theory, LBDQ, Organizational Goals, Implications for Station Management and Recommendations for Further Research.

Two sections, one a Bibliography and the other an Appendix, conclude the dissertation.



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APPENDIX A

LBDQ GIVEN TO MANAGERS

## THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

### Explanation

The following questions make it possible to describe the behavior of individuals in leadership positions. The items simply describe the leader's behavior; they do not judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Therefore, in no way are the questions to be considered a "test" either of the ability of the persons answering the questions or of the quality of a leader's behavior. We simply want an objective description of what leaders actually do.

### Directions

- A. READ each item carefully.
- B. THINK about how frequently you engage in the behavior described by the item.
- C. DRAW a circle around one of the five letters following each item to show how frequently you believe you engage in each kind of behavior.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never



## AS A MANAGER, I:

1. Do personal favors for staff members.	A	B	C	D	E
2. Make my attitudes clear to the staff.	A	B	C	D	E
3. Do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff.	A	B	C	D	E
4. Try out my new ideas with the staff.	A	B	C	D	E
5. Act as the real leader of the station.	A	B	C	D	E
6. Am easy to understand.	A	B	C	D	E
7. Rule with an iron hand.	A	B	C	D	E
8. Find time to listen to staff members.	A	B	C	D	E
9. Criticize poor work.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Give advance notice of changes.	A	B	C	D	E
11. Speak in a manner not to be questioned.	A	B	C	D	E
12. Keep to myself.	A	B	C	D	E
13. Look out for the personal welfare of individual staff members.	A	B	C	D	E
14. Assign staff members to particular tasks.	A	B	C	D	E
15. Am the spokesman for the station.	A	B	C	D	E
16. Schedule the work to be done.	A	B	C	D	E
17. Maintain definite standards of performance.	A	B	C	D	E
18. Refuse to explain my actions.	A	B	C	D	E
19. Keep staff members informed.	A	B	C	D	E
20. Act without consulting my staff.	A	B	C	D	E
21. Back up staff members in their actions.	A	B	C	D	E
22. Emphasize the meeting of deadlines.	A	B	C	D	E
23. Treat all staff members as my equals.	A	B	C	D	E
24. Encourage the use of uniform procedures.	A	B	C	D	E
25. Get what I ask for from staff members.	A	B	C	D	E

26. Am willing to make changes.
27. Make sure that my part in the organization is understood by staff members.
28. Am friendly and approachable.
29. Ask that staff members follow standard rules and regulations.
30. Fail to take necessary action.
31. Make staff members feel at ease when talking with them.
32. Let staff members know what is expected of them.
33. Speak as the representative of the station.
34. Put suggestions made by the staff into operation.
35. See to it that staff members are working to capacity.
36. Let other people take away my leadership at the station.
37. Get the staff to act for the welfare of the station.
38. Get the staff's approval in important matters before going ahead.
39. See to it that the work at the station is coordinated.
40. Keep the station working together as a team.

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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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APPENDIX B

LBDQ GIVEN TO STAFF MEMBERS

THE LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIREExplanation

The following questions make it possible to describe the behavior of individuals in leadership positions. The items simply describe the leader's behavior; they do not judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Therefore, in no way are the questions to be considered a "test" either of the ability of the persons answering the questions or of the quality of a leader's behavior. We simply want an objective description of what leaders actually do.

Directions

- A. READ each item carefully.
- B. THINK about how frequently the person to whom you report engages in the behavior described by the item.
- C. DRAW a circle around one of the five letters following each item to show how frequently you believe the person to whom you report engages in each kind of behavior.
  - A. Always
  - B. Often
  - C. Occasionally
  - D. Seldom
  - E. Never

## THE PERSON TO WHOM I REPORT:

1. Does personal favors for staff members.	A	B	C	D	E
2. Makes his attitudes clear to the staff.	A	B	C	D	E
3. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the staff.	A	B	C	D	E
4. Tries out his new ideas with the staff.	A	B	C	D	E
5. Acts as the real leader of the station.	A	B	C	D	E
6. Is easy to understand.	A	B	C	D	E
7. Rules with an iron hand.	A	B	C	D	E
8. Finds time to listen to staff members.	A	B	C	D	E
9. Criticizes poor work.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Gives advance notice of changes.	A	B	C	D	E
11. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.	A	B	C	D	E
12. Keeps to himself.	A	B	C	D	E
13. Looks out for the personal welfare of individual staff members.	A	B	C	D	E
14. Assigns staff members to particular tasks.	A	B	C	D	E
15. Is the spokesman for the station.	A	B	C	D	E
16. Schedules the work to be done.	A	B	C	D	E
17. Maintains definite standards of performance.	A	B	C	D	E
18. Refuses to explain his actions.	A	B	C	D	E
19. Keeps staff members informed.	A	B	C	D	E
20. Acts without consulting his staff.	A	B	C	D	E
21. Backs up staff members in their actions.	A	B	C	D	E
22. Emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.	A	B	C	D	E
23. Treats all staff members as his equals.	A	B	C	D	E
24. Encourages the use of uniform procedures.	A	B	C	D	E
25. Gets what he asks for from staff members.	A	B	C	D	E

26. Is willing to make changes.
27. Makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by staff members.
28. Is friendly and approachable.
29. Asks that staff members follow standard rules and regulations.
30. Fails to take necessary action.
31. Makes staff members feel at ease when talking with them.
32. Lets staff members know what is expected of them.
33. Speaks as the representative of the station.
34. Puts suggestions made by the staff into operation.
35. Sees to it that staff members are working to capacity.
36. Lets other people take away his leadership at the station.
37. Gets the staff to act for the welfare of the station.
38. Gets the staff's approval in important matters before going ahead.
39. Sees to it that the work at the station is coordinated.
40. Keeps the station working together as a team.

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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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A	B	C	D	E
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APPENDIX C

GOAL ACHIEVEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE



## GOAL ACHIEVEMENT

1. To make an optimal profit. CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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2. To increase the stations' share of the audience.  
CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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3. To develop employees in order to promote from within.  
CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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4. To promote good employee relations and have satisfied  
workers. CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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5. To maintain the station's position in the market.  
CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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6. To serve the general needs of the community. CHECK  
ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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7. To produce new and innovative programming. CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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8. To increase the gross revenue of this station. CHECK ONE.

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completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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9. To keep the station growing and expanding. CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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10. To maintain high quality transmission and production standards. CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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11. To protect the station's license to operate. CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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12. To promote social change in the community. CHECK ONE.

---

Completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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13. To provide superior informational programming to the community. CHECK ONE.

---

Completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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14. To attain a position of leadership in the business community. CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
------------------------	------------------	------------------------	-------------------------	-----------------

15. To attain a position of leadership in the broadcasting industry. CHECK ONE.

---

completely achieved	much achieved	moderately achieved	very little achieved	nothing done
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APPENDIX D

ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS QUESTIONNAIRE

ORGANIZATIONAL GOALS QUESTIONNAIREExplanation

A station manager spends some time in trying to achieve some of the following goals at one time or the other. Please examine the list and carefully indicate how important you think each goal should be to an effective manager.

Directions

- A. READ each activity carefully.
- B. DETERMINE the importance of the activity.
- C. DRAW a circle around one of the five letters following each item to show the importance of the activity.
  - A. Extremely important
  - B. Quite important
  - C. Fairly important
  - D. Not too important
  - E. Not important

## A STATION MANAGER SHOULD STRIVE TO:

1. Raise more money each succeeding year.	A	B	C	D	E
2. Increase the station's share of the audience.	A	B	C	D	E
3. Develop employees in order to promote from within.	A	B	C	D	E
4. Promote good employee relations and have satisfied workers.	A	B	C	D	E
5. Maintain the station's position in the educational broadcasting community.	A	B	C	D	E
6. Improve the station's position in the education broadcasting community.	A	B	C	D	E
7. Serve the needs of the community not served by commercial broadcasters.	A	B	C	D	E
8. Produce new and innovative programming.	A	B	C	D	E
9. Increase the operating budget of the station.	A	B	C	D	E
10. Keep the station growing and expanding.	A	B	C	D	E
11. Maintain high quality transmission and production standards.	A	B	C	D	E
12. Protect the station's license to operate.	A	B	C	D	E
13. Promote social change in the community.	A	B	C	D	E
14. Provide superior informational programming to the community.	A	B	C	D	E
15. Attain a position of leadership in the community.	A	B	C	D	E
16. Attain a position of leadership in the educational broadcasting industry.	A	B	C	D	E
17. Try to produce better programs locally so as to do away with network offerings.	A	B	C	D	E

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION TO USE THE LBDQ



THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

1775 SOUTH COLLEGE ROAD  
COLUMBUS, OHIO 43210

142

COLLEGE OF  
ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCE

DIVISION OF RESEARCH

PROGRAM FOR RESEARCH IN  
LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATION

614-422-2131

TELEPHONE: 614-422-2131

May 9, 1972

VIA AIR MAIL

Mr. G. G. Oyewole  
Media Center  
School of Education  
University of Mass.  
Amherst, Mass. 01002

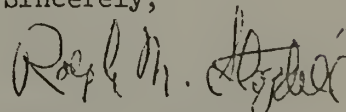
Dear Mr. Oyewole:

You have our permission to use the Leader Behavior  
Description Questionnaire in your doctoral research.

Since the questionnaire is copyrighted by The Ohio State  
University, we also grant permission to the University  
Microfilms Library Services to duplicate it when it is  
included as an appendix in your dissertation. We suggest  
that you file a copy of this letter in order that it will  
be available when requested after your dissertation is  
completed. The address of the microfilm service, which  
duplicates filed dissertations is as follows:

University Microfilms Library Services  
Xerox Corporation  
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

Sincerely,



Ralph M. Stogdill  
Director

RMS/az

APPENDIX F

PERMISSION TO USE  
THE GOAL ACHIEVEMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

# Oklahoma State University

*Department of Radio-Television-Film / (405) 372-6211, Ext. 6115 / Stillwater, Okla. 74068*

May 8, 1972

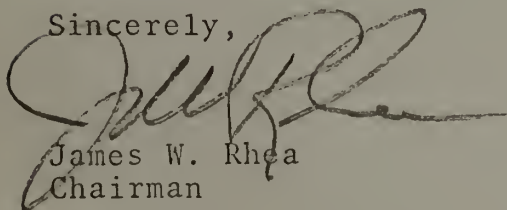
Mr. Godwin G. Oyewole  
Media Center  
School of Education  
University of Massachusetts  
Amherst, Massachusetts 01002

Dear Mr. Oyewole:

Dr. Anderson at OU called today about your use of the Goal Achievement Questionnaire at the NPR meeting. I certainly have no objection to your use of the instrument. I would appreciate, however, receiving a report on your findings.

Ed Paulin, Station Manager of KOSU-FM, will be at the NPR meeting. You might enjoy meeting him.

Sincerely,



James W. Rhea  
Chairman

JWR/dm  
Enclosure

